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THE WINE TRADE

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INSIDE THE RED BULL PLAYHOUSE.

From the frontispiece to Kirkman's "Drolls." 1672.

Frontispiece.

PITMAN'S COMMON COMMODITIES

AND INDUSTRIES

W I N E
AND
THE WINE TRADE

BY
ANDRE L. SIMON



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PREFACE

THE accumulated store of knowledge which we have inherited from past generations is altogether beyond the power of assimilation of any single human brain. Yet what is already known to us is not sufficient to still our craving for more knowledge : on the contrary, our generation shall hand down to the next immensely greater treasures than it received. We can never know *enough* : we may often know *too much*, but, if we do, it is because we do not know *enough*.

Although it is as impossible as it would be unnecessary for any single person to comprehend the sum total of human knowledge, it is both possible and desirable that we should all apprehend at least some of the main facts to which the causation and effects of phenomena and objects in our everyday life are due or believed to be due.

There are only a few people who make it their business or their hobby to comprehend the making and regulating of clocks, but we have all learnt or heard enough about them to "apprehend" that if our watch stops it is that it requires either winding, or a new spring, or a drop of oil, but that it has not stopped as the result of some malefice of the sorcerer's art. Unscrupulous tradesmen may sell us clocks with pretty faces and bad works, but not watches without any works at all, such as those given to children in the nursery.

The elementary knowledge which we all possess about watches is superficial and yet it is very useful. Did we all possess the same elementary knowledge about wine, the poisonous concoctions which masquerade

under the name of wine would no longer be sold, or, at any rate, would not be sold so easily as they are to-day in England.

The man who bought a toy tin watch for a real silver timekeeper suffered no further hurt than the loss of his money and maybe of a train. The case is very different when a man wastes his money upon some worthless fake sold to him under the name of wine. The loss of his money does not really matter; what matters is that his health and that of his guests may be temporarily or even permanently injured through his complete ignorance of wine and the shameful advantage taken of his ignorance by some shameless trader.

Whether we drink wine or not, we have everything to gain and nothing to lose by knowing a few elementary truths about it.

Where does the Vine grow and where are different wines made? What kind of a Trade is the English Wine Trade? What about those wines which we hear and read about so often: Port, Champagne, Claret, Burgundy, Sherry, Hock and Moselle?

These are the questions which I have attempted to answer in the present book. There are other and more important works on wine: such, for instance, as the two text-books written by me and published by Messrs. Duckworth & Co., in 1919 and 1920 respectively. The first, *Wine and Spirits: The Connoisseur's Text-Book*, has been written more particularly for country gentlemen, who have a cellar and the leisure to enjoy both wine and a book about wine. The second, *The Blood of the Grape: The Wine Merchant's Text-Book*, has been written especially for persons engaged or interested in the Wine Trade. In the present work, I have endeavoured to compass under the smallest possible volume the greatest number of

elementary truths about Wine and the English Wine Trade, in order that the general public in England might acquire, should they desire to do so, a little more knowledge than they appear to possess about one of the greatest of all God's gifts to man : WINE.

ANDRÉ L. SIMON.

April, 1921, /

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WINE AND THE WINE TRADE

CHAPTER I

THE VINE

LONG before the earth had become habitable, before any sign of animal life had appeared either on land or in the seas, the wild vine grew from Pole to Pole, in the warm equable temperature which then enveloped the whole globe. At Brjamslak, in Iceland ; at Bovey Tracey, in Devonshire ; at Sezanne (Marne), in France ; in Silesia ; in the valley of the Rhine ; in Switzerland, and in many other parts of Europe as well as in America, fossils have been found which modern palaeontology enables us to recognize as dating back to the earliest stages of the crust formation of the earth, and which show distinct impressions of the leaves of different species of wild vines.

Whether it be Osiris, in Egypt ; Varum, in India ; Samschid, in Persia ; Eleusis and Bacchus, in Greece and at Rome ; we find in all the oldest legends of the East and the mythology of the Ancients, a benevolent divinity who was credited with having introduced viticulture and civilization. It may truly be said that in every part of the world and among every race the use of wine is older than the oldest records which have reached us.

Pickett, in his *Origines Indo-Européennes*, states that the Aryans introduced viticulture in Egypt, India,

Persia, and Greece ; this is also the opinion advanced by Pietro Selleti in his *Trattato di Viticoltura e di Vinificazione*. On the other hand, we are told by Sir John Malcolm, in his *History of Persia*, that viticulture was already flourishing in Persia in the reign of King Jensheed, a monarch who is believed to have lived at a very remote date and who is credited with the discovery of fermentation.

In Egypt, we have not only tradition to rely upon but records of the greatest antiquity. Delchevalerie, in his *Illustration Horticole*, depicts the scenes of grape-gathering and wine-making which ornament the tomb of Phtah-Hotep, who lived in Memphis some 4,000 years before Christ. Pickering, in his *Chronological History of Plants*, has reproduced similar glyptic illustrations which he ascribes to the Third Egyptian Dynasty, adding that other representations of vineyards and full details of the art of wine-making belong to the fourth, seventeenth, and eighteenth dynasties.

In China, viticulture flourished from 2000 B.C. until the fourteenth century of our era, whilst in Europe and in Africa the Phoenicians seem to have taught the art of wine-making in the Peloponese, the Latium, Gaul and the Iberic Peninsula, as well as all along the Mediterranean coast of Africa where they had colonies.

The earliest records of ancient Greek and Latin history show that the cultivation of vineyards and the science of wine-making are coeval with the dawn of civilization in Greece, the Balkans, Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Germany, and Britain. Modern discoveries of the lake-dwellings of the Bronze Age, at Castione, near Parma, at Bex, at Wangen and at Varese, prove the vine to have been indigenous to Europe and that at the remotest date of western history of which we thus possess documentary evidence, men grew corn and vines.

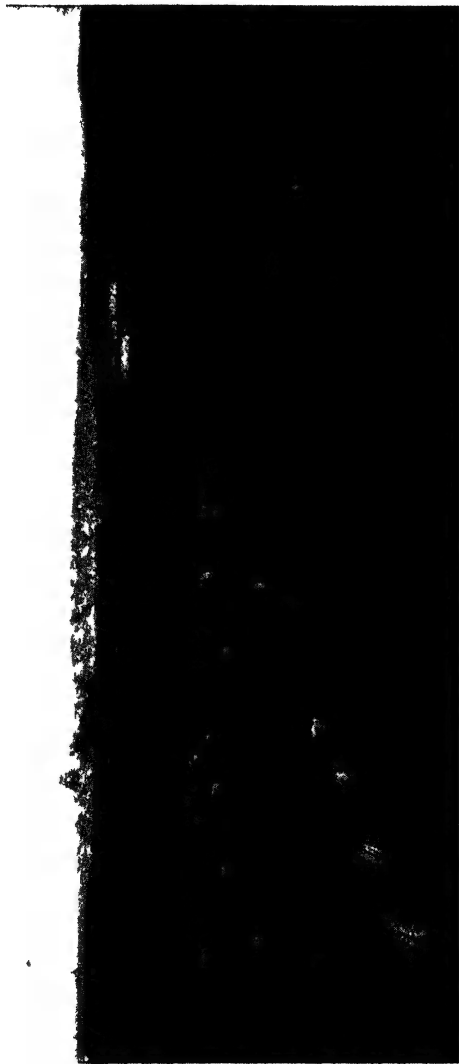
Professor Heer, in his *Die Pflanzen der Pfahlbauten*, even asserts that he has been able to distinguish in some lacustrine remains evidence of both wild and cultivated grapes.

The Phoenicians, Greeks and Romans of old appear to have all realized the civilizing influence of viticulture. Wherever they obtained a sufficiently secure footing in a new country, they taught the "Barbarians" to plant and tend vines. At a later date, the same policy was followed by the early Christian missionaries who, wherever they went and whenever they were able to build a church or a monastery as a permanent abode, taught the heathens the gentle art of viticulture. Some of the choicest vineyards of France and Germany retain to this day names recalling their ecclesiastical origin. In Britain, too, it was the early Christian priests who taught the Saxons how to grow vines where no other crop could be raised and, under their guidance, vineyards were planted not only on Kentish chalk and Surrey gravel, but in almost every part of the country, as far north as Scotland.

In more recent times, it was the successors of those early Christian priests who also taught the art of viticulture all along the Pacific coast, from California and Mexico to Peru and Chili.

It is true that the vineyards of Britain, if we except those of the Marquis of Bute, in Wales, and of the Royal Horticultural Society, in Surrey, have long ceased to exist, as well as those of Normandy, Belgium, and Northern Germany. This is not, however, because vines can no longer be grown in northern latitudes, but because it has been found more profitable for centuries past to obtain supplies from those lands where climate, soil and cheaper labour make it possible to produce wine of better quality and at lower cost.

VINEYARDS IN WINTER



The vine will grow in all but arctic and tropical latitudes, but its fruit will only mature to perfection in temperate countries.

The vine holds an important place of its own in botany. It belongs to the great family of the *Ampelidaceae* (from the Greek, *Ampelos*, vine), but the genus *Vitis* is the only one which need arrest our attention.

The genus *Vitis* includes all grape-bearing vines; there are ten different groups of Asiatic *Vitis*, sixteen American ones, and one European, the *Vitis Vinifera*.

Until the last century there was practically no other vine but the *Vitis Vinifera* in Europe, where it had been cultivated without interruption ever since the days of the Phoenicians. As a result of so many centuries of observation of and experiments with the *Vitis Vinifera*, the European parent vine possesses a far greater number of different varieties than any other species. It also produces grapes of a better quality than any other class of vine, either Asiatic or American; but, on the other hand, it is far less fruitful and usually less hardy than these. One may form some idea of the considerable variety of European *Vitis Vinifera* types from the fact that, in 1844, when a catalogue was published of the different sorts of vines then being reared in the Luxembourg Gardens, in Paris, there were over 2,000 names of distinct types of *Vitis Vinifera*, all of which had been obtained from the vine-growing districts of France alone.

Species and Soil. The species of the vine affects the style and quality of the wine, but the nature of the soil affects the growth and the produce of different species of vines in a very remarkable way.

The large family of Pinots, for instance, give excellent results in Burgundy, Champagne, Germany and Austria, but the grapes they yield in different countries and

the wine made therefrom vary so much that one can hardly realize that they are produced by the same species of vine. In each case, the nature of the soil has altered the characteristics of the species very considerably. In this instance, the same species of vine, finding suitable soil and environments under different conditions, adapts itself to its near circumstances and produces wines of the same degree of excellence although very different in all other respects.

In many other vine-growing districts of Europe, America, Africa, and Australia, the Pinots cannot be acclimatized at all, whilst in other parts they grow but give disappointing results. In the Beaujolais, for instance, which is very close to the Côte d'Or, the Pinots produce a wine inferior to that made from the Gamay vines, which belong to a commoner species, but are better suited to the soil and climate of the Beaujolais. In the South of France, the Pinots not only can grow but even grow with such vigour in a soil too rich for them that they yield an abundance of grapes from which no good wine can be made.

On the other hand, the Gamay vines which give very good results in the Beaujolais, and the Aramon vines which are grown with great success in the South of France, never could produce any good wine if planted at Clos de Vougeot, Ay or Rudesheim. In other words, fine wines can only be made when the right species of vines are grown in exactly the right kind of soil.

The Médoc Cabernet vines will not produce a Château Margaux at the Cape, any more than the Folle Blanche of the Charentes can produce Cognac brandy in the Languedoc or the Burgundy Pinots Chambertin in Austria or the German Rieslings Johannesburg wine in California and the Palomino grape Sherry in Chili.

There can be no perfection without harmony, and perfect harmony between species and soil is absolutely indispensable to the production of fine wines.

Aspect. Besides the different species of vines and the nature of the soil in which they are grown, the quality of wine depends also on the climate, altitude, and aspect of the vineyards.

The vine requires a certain amount of heat and moisture as well as a good deal of air and solar light. This is the reason why practically all the best wines are grown on hills or inclines often so steep as to necessitate tiers or terraces which allow the sun to bathe each vine and let the air circulate freely.

In the more northern vineyards of France, the cultivation of vines on inclines also secures for them a greater amount of heat and a better safeguard against risks of spring frosts. In the south of France, where the heat is quite sufficient to mature grapes completely when grown in the plains, the quality of the wines made from hill-side vineyards is superior to that of the wines from the plain. In the Cognac, Médoc and Graves districts, the proximity of the Atlantic permits of growing vines successfully on almost flat ground, as, thanks to the prevalent westerly winds, they never lack proper aeration. In the valley of the Douro, where the summer heat is very great, the grapes have to be grown in terraces on mountain slopes so that they may get all the aeration which they require to attain perfection.

The altitude and aspect of a vineyard are of greater importance than its latitude or longitude. In the sun-scorched valley of the Douro, for instance, vineyards may be planted at high altitudes on slopes facing north, north-west or south-west. On the other hand, in the colder valleys of the Moselle and of the Rhine, all

the best vineyards will be found on moderate heights, chiefly facing south or south-east.

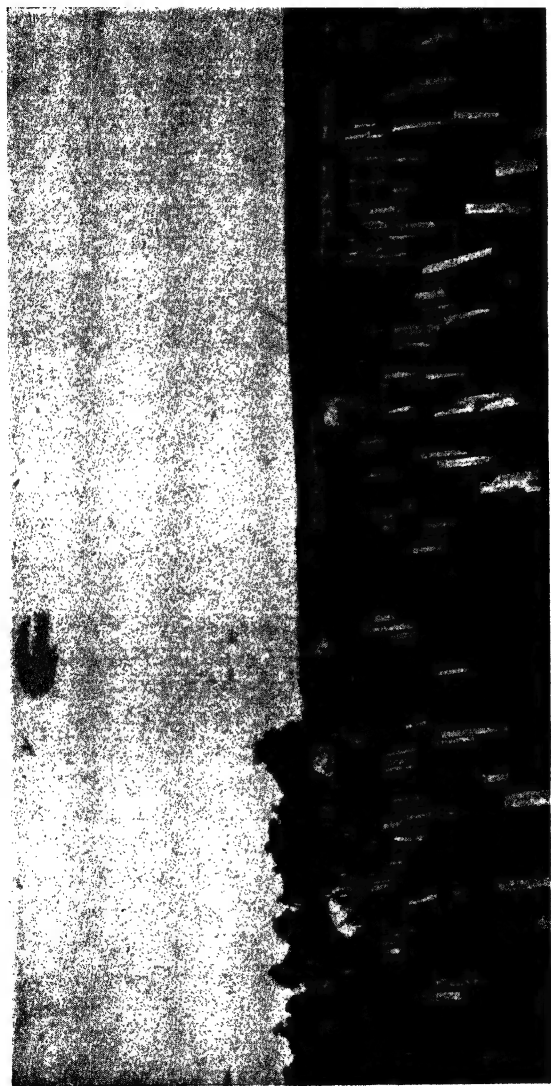
Weather. When nature, the art of man and the experience of many generations have made it possible to arrive at the most perfect harmony between species, soil and aspect, the quality and quantity of the grapes the vine-grower may hope to gather are still and always must remain very uncertain, on account of that ever unknown factor, the weather.

The danger of spring frosts and the damage done by hail storms may be minimized at the cost of much labour, trouble and expenditure, but there are neither scientific methods nor wealth capable of checking excessive rains or prolonged droughts. To the differences in the weather from year to year may be ascribed the differences often so striking and always noticeable between the produce of the same vineyards, but of different vintages.

The question of the weather is of paramount importance at the four most critical epochs of the growth of the vine, viz., the budding season in March or April ; the flowering season in May or June (sometimes July) ; the fruiting time in September or October ; and the wood-ripening season in October or November.

Frosts, in the spring, may destroy all hopes of a crop in the autumn ; excessive rains or winds may carry away the pollen of the flowers and prevent the fruit from setting ; the lack or the excess of rain or heat may interfere with the development and proper ripening of the grapes ; moist and mild weather in the late autumn may prevent the wood of the vines from ripening properly and thus handicap severely the crop of the following year.

Some good wine may be made from grapes which are over-ripe but never from unripe grapes. Generally



SUMMER IN THE VINEYARDS

speaking, however, the most important condition required of the grapes for the making of good wine is that they shall be sound and fully ripe. Unripe grapes contain a large percentage of acidity and little sugar ; gradually, however, the acidity decreases and the sugar increases as the fruit is ripening under the summer sun ; the quantity of sugar in the grape-juice then remains stationary for a few days during which the acidity further decreases. The grapes are then ready to be plucked and made to yield their precious blood.

The more sugar there is in the ripe grape, the more alcohol the wine made therefrom will contain, and as the sun produces the sugar, it follows that the same vines which produce a thin wine, with an excess of acidity, after a cold and wet summer, will yield a bigger wine, with perchance a lack of acidity, after a hot and dry season.

The weather is, therefore, responsible to a large extent not only for the quantity of fruit the vine will bear, but also for the degree of excellence to which the grapes, and ultimately the wine, may attain.

Culture. Independently of species, soil, aspect and weather, the quality and quantity of fruit the vine will produce depend on the mode of cultivation. It may be laid down as a general rule that quantity is always obtained at the expense of quality, and the vine-grower must make up his mind which of the two will pay him best, which of the two his vineyard is better suited for, and adopt methods of cultivation accordingly.

There are, however, certain rules of viticulture which apply to all vines alike.

PLANTING AND PROPAGATING. The vine is planted and propagated in a variety of ways, either by slips, layers, cuttings, eyes, or by budding and grafting ;

the depth at which the vines are planted depends chiefly upon the nature of the soil and the climate of the district, $1\frac{1}{2}$ ft. being considered sufficient in the Champagne country, whereas 3 ft. is more usual in the valley of the Douro, where the greater heat makes it imperative to give the roots a greater depth.

PRUNING. The vine must be limited in its production for the finest quality of fruit to be obtained, and pruning is a very important operation, which varies with the species of vines and the climate of each district. Generally speaking, however, it may be said that hard pruning is the rule when quality is of greater importance than quantity, as is the case when fine wines are concerned.

HOEING. In the early spring and summer the hoe has to be applied to loosen the surface of the soil and remove all the weeds.

STAKING. The vine is a climbing shrub, which cannot support itself, and stakes are used for the purpose.

MANURING AND TREATING. Manure as nourishment for the roots is not all that is required by the vine ; its many enemies, whether insects or fungi, make it necessary to spray sulphur and sulphate of copper on the leaves to check the inroads of insect pests and diseases.

VINTAGING. When the grapes have reached a sufficient degree of maturity, they are gathered as rapidly as possible and brought to the press, where they are crushed and made to yield their sweet juice before they have had time to get bruised or to rot.

CHAPTER II

THE MAKING OF WINE

WINE-MAKING is an art which the genius of man discovered at the dawn of the world's history : it has largely contributed to the well-being of mankind and to the growth of all arts ever since.

The distinctive character of every wine is due principally to the species of grapes from which it is made, to the geographical situation of the vineyards where those grapes are grown, and to the more or less favourable weather conditions prevailing in different years. But the striking differences which exist between various kinds of wines, either dark or light in colour, still or sparkling, sweet or dry, are due to the manner and degree in which they are fermented, and to the way they are treated during and after fermentation, or, in other words, to different methods of vinification.

It is of the utmost importance that grapes should be sound and ripe, when picked at the vintage time.

Unsound grapes introduce into the "must" a number of most objectionable moulds and bacteria which may be mastered, at first, by more lively and plentiful yeasts, but they will stay in the "must" and pass into the wine made from that must. They will stay, bide their time, and, sooner or later, they will do their evil work and spoil the wine.

Unripe grapes introduce into the "must" a proportion of acids in excess of what is required to secure a well-balanced, pleasant wine. Excessive acidity is not a cause of decay in a wine : on the contrary. At the same time, nobody wishes to keep a sound but tart



VINTAGE SCENE AT RILLY-LA-MONTAGNE (CHAMPAGNE)

wine which may remain sound a long time and grow harsher and more unpalatable every year.

Overripe grapes, unlike unsound and unripe grapes, may be used for securing an excessively sweet "must" from which certain rich wines are made. But such wines are the exception. In the great majority of cases, if grapes are overripe when picked, the must does not contain a sufficient proportion of acidity, and the wine will eventually be deficient in keeping qualities.

Grape Juice. There is within each grape-berry a sweet juice, the "pulp," consisting chiefly of water and grape-sugar, in varying proportions, with very small quantities of various acids and mineral matters, the nature and number of which vary according to the species of vines, the soil of the vineyards, the mode of cultivation, climatic conditions, etc. Although we describe "must" as grape-juice, it is more than that. It is the juice of the grape, the pulp from inside the berry, *plus* all sorts of vegetal and mineral substances which were originally part of the skins, pips, and stalks of the bunch of grapes as it grew upon the vine.

"Must," or grape-juice, varies therefore according to the manner in which the juice of the grapes is obtained. The oldest method of obtaining "must"—a method still resorted to in many southern vineyards—consists in crushing the grapes under men's naked feet. The latest is the hydraulic press.

If we were to make a chemical analysis of two "musts" from grapes identical in every respect, but obtained the one by the old, and the other by the new methods, we would find not only noticeable but considerable differences.

Which is the best method of securing grape-juice? It all depends upon the grapes available and the type of wine which they are most suitable for. In the

Médoc, for instance, they do not actually press the grapes when they want to make the "premier vin" or best wine. When the grapes are brought in from the vineyards, the berries are roughly torn from their stalks by hand or by machinery, and the skins are burst in the process. The juice which bleeds from the wounded berries runs into the vat on top of which this "*égrappage*" takes place, and the burst berries themselves are thrown into the same vat, until it is full, full of "must," full of grape-juice, but of grape-juice with skins and pips also, and millions of *Saccharomycetes*, the seeds of yeast, which are upon the grapes. When the liquid contents of the vat are drawn, after the must has become new wine, there remains in it a mass of wet skins which contain still some pulp or grape-juice proper, as well as pips and *Saccharomycetes*. This mass is then placed in a press and pressed hard, until all moisture is extracted. This also is "must" or grape-juice: this also will ferment and become wine, but not "premier vin," and if we analyze either this second "must," or the wine made from it, we shall find that both differ chemically from both the first "must" and the first wine obtained from the same grapes.

In Champagne, the methods of pressing the grapes are different. There, the bunches of grapes are thrown, whole and unbruised, into a square oak press fitted with a lid made of oak boards which can be raised or lowered at will. As this lid slowly descends upon them, the grapes burst and their juice runs away immediately into a vat placed below the press, away from stalks, pips, and skins, mostly black skins which would otherwise make the "must" red in colour. There are 41 cwts. of grapes put in that press and fifteen casks, each 44 galls., of "must" is generally expected to be secured from that quantity, but not "must" nor eventually

contain the colouring pigment which gives to red wines their colour, and later in casks until the fermentation is over. Of such wines Claret and Burgundy are the prototypes.

(b) Sparkling wines differ chiefly from "natural" wines in being bottled before the end of fermentation so that the carbonic acid gas generated by fermentation remains in solution in the wine inside the bottle. Champagne is the prototype of all sparkling wines.

(c) Fortified wines are made by the addition of brandy during fermentation, so that a certain proportion of the grape-sugar of grape-juice remains unchanged in the wine. Of fortified wines, Port is the prototype.

(d) Sweet wines are made in a number of different ways, either from overripe grapes, like Sauternes, or by the addition of a liqueur made of sugar and brandy, or by checking the fermentation of a wine containing a large proportion of its unfermented grape-sugar.

Methods of vinification vary according to each wine-producing district, and according to the finest type of wine which the grapes, soil and climatic conditions of different vine-growing districts make it possible to obtain. If grapes grown in the Douro valley, for instance, were pressed, fermented and treated in exactly the same way as grapes are pressed, fermented and treated in the Champagne district, wine would be obtained which would be neither Champagne nor Port; it would be very much worse than the worst Champagne or the worst Port. The same disastrous result would be obtained by attempting to introduce in the Champagne district wine-making methods which give excellent results at Oporto.

Whilst various processes of vinification obtain in different wine-producing districts, there is one

all-important factor in the art of wine-making which is common to all, viz., fermentation.

Fermentation. Fermentation consists in a series of chemical reactions due to the presence of the catalyst Zymase, which is the Enzyme of living micro-organisms known as Saccharomycetes. As a result of these chemical reactions, one molecule of grape-sugar is split up into two molecules of ethyl alcohol and two molecules of carbonic acid gas. As a matter of fact, this chemical change is the most important, but by no means the only one of those which take place during vinous fermentation. There are other substances in grape-juice besides grape-sugar, and there is a series of molecular exchanges going on at the same time and all the time, during the fermentation proper of the grape-sugar and long after.

Pasteur, to whose genius we owe so much of our knowledge of ferments and fermentation, has placed beyond all argument the fact that fermentations offer as an essential condition the presence of microscopic living organisms or ferments.

Some species of these living yeasts are very fond of grape-juice ; it is not a mere matter of taste, but of life and death ; they must have grape-juice to live and to grow ; hence the name which has been given to them, viz., Saccharomycetes.

Borne on the breeze, the Saccharomycetes cling in their thousands to the skin of the ripening grapes but fail to reach the nectar so marvellously stored within. Their chance comes when the bunches are plucked from the vines, thrown into the press and crushed. The sweet juice which runs out is what the Saccharomycetes have been waiting for : they are at it in a flash. Soon after it begins to ferment, there is the life in it—it is living : it is wine.

Saccharomycetes. Saccharomycetes are microscopic fungi. They are generally composed of a single cell, either spherical, elliptical or cylindrical, formed of a thin cell-wall which contains a granular nitrogenous substance known as protoplasm. These cells grow at the expense of other bodies, but they do not breathe like true plants or animals, hence the designation "parasites," which ferments and all fungi have been given. When the cell of the Saccharomycetes reaches a certain size—about ten micro-millimetres—it divides itself into two smaller similar cells, which grow and divide themselves again as soon as they have reached their full size. This process goes on so long as the liquid in which they live supplies to the Saccharomycetes sufficient and suitable food ; it goes on, however, at a much more rapid rate when the temperature of the liquid is high than when it is low, and it is checked by extremes of heat and cold, by the presence of small quantities of substances such as sulphuric acid, or of too large a proportion of either alcohol or even grape-sugar ; it is also checked completely by the total absence of oxygen.

The Saccharomycetes are the appointed agents of vinous fermentation. Their business is to see that grape-sugar becomes changed into alcohol so that grape-juice may acquire life and become wine. But the Saccharomycetes have enemies, other living micro-organisms like themselves, yeasts, moulds and bacteria, millions of which are floating in the air, hanging on the cellar walls or cask staves, always ready to pounce upon grape-juice or wine and start work on their own account.

Hence the importance of giving the Saccharomycetes every chance, of having as many of them as possible, studying their likes and dislikes in the matter of

temperature and surroundings, and being their true ally in their struggle against the power of their enemies, chiefly the dreaded moulds.

A wet vintage is always dangerous and often disastrous. A wine made of wet-gathered grapes is never safe, not because of the rain-water in the press, but because of the much smaller number of Saccharomycetes upon the grapes, which means that the vinous fermentation will be slow and therefore unsatisfactory.

We know that fermentation transforms grape-juice into wine ; when we ask how it is done we are referred to microscopic living fungi of the "ferments" or "yeast" tribe, and, in that tribe, the "ellipsoideus" member of the honourable family of Saccharomycetes is introduced to us as being responsible for vinous fermentation.

The result of its work is so marvellous that we must try and find out what is the process employed. Do Saccharomycetes feed greedily upon grape-sugar ? Is their action in the form of direct intervention ? Are alcohol and carbon dioxide by-products of their digestion ? The answer to these three questions is in the negative.

Fermentation is a chemical change, a series of chemical reactions associated with and produced by living organisms, but not due to the direct action of such living organisms upon the fermentable substances.

Enzymes. Sugar has been transformed into alcohol, it has been "fermented" without the presence of any living "ferment" or yeast, and merely through the agency of an "Enzyme," a substance without any life, but produced by and contained in the cell of living yeast.

What is an Enzyme ? It is that part of the Saccharomycetes which brings about the fermentative



CHAMPAGNE WINE-PRESS

changes. It is a substance which plays a very important part, the most important part, in the process of fermentation.

The word Enzyme is made up of a Greek preposition meaning "in" and a Greek noun ($\zeta\upsilon\mu\epsilon$) meaning "leaven" (or yeast). It stands for the idea that "in yeast," that is, within the living cell of yeast micro-organisms, there is a substance which, without possessing any degree of life itself and merely owing to its texture and chemical composition, affects the rate at which and the extent to which a chemical reaction proceeds.

An Enzyme is a *catalyst*, that is to say, an agent which facilitates or renders possible chemical reactions by removing hindrances and without being used up itself in the process.

Catalysts are *accelerators of reactions*.

When we eat, our salivary glands pour forth saliva, which mixes with our food and immediately begins to prepare it for our stomach; this preparation is done by means of chemical changes or reactions; these changes take place on the way from the mouth to the stomach, and they can take place so quickly only because of the presence of a particular *catalyst* in our saliva, a substance known as "ptyalin."

It is also due to the presence of this and other catalysts that our food can be transformed by numerous reactions into suitable material for building up our flesh and bones, making good the wastage of tissue, renovating our blood and keeping up our body temperature. The unceasing work of the marvellous laboratory of our organism could not be carried on if it were not for the "catalytic" action of "catalysts" such as the ptyalin of saliva, the pepsin of gastric juice, and the trypsin of the pancreas.

Nor would grape-juice ferment without the catalytic action of a particular Enzyme known as "Zymase," which accelerates the chemical reactions resulting in the transformation of one molecule of grape-sugar into two molecules of alcohol, two molecules of carbon dioxide, and some minute quantities of glycerine and other substances.

Zymase is the organic substance of the yeast cells of the *Saccharomycetes*, and to its presence is due the decomposition of grape-sugar and the production of alcohol and carbon dioxide.

The juice of some kinds of grapes is more suitable than the juice of others for wine-making, or for the making of certain types of wine, but whether a wine be sound or not, wholesome and pleasant or the reverse, whether a wine is to enjoy a long and healthy life or to suffer various diseases and die early, all this depends entirely upon fermentation.

Grape-juice, the raw material from which wine is to be built, is very complex; it contains, besides water and grape-sugar, a number of acids, organic and inorganic salts, oils, mucilage, and other substances in minute quantities but capable of making all the difference to the bouquet, the charm and value of the wine which will eventually result.

The chemical composition of grape-juice varies with the species of vine, the soil of the vineyards, climatic conditions and the methods employed to press the grapes or otherwise to secure their juice. The chemical composition of a wine depends in the first instance upon the nature of the grape-juice, and secondly upon the way, speed, and degree of fermentation by which the grape-juice has been transformed into wine.

Blending. After fermentation, the most important factor in the art of wine-making is blending,

The blending of wines from different vineyards or of different years has a twofold object : firstly and chiefly to obtain better and more regular quality, and secondly, to reduce the average cost of production.

If there are two types of wine more popular in this country than any other, they are Port and Champagne ; and Ports and Champagnes are always blended, so that it cannot be said that blending applies only to the cheaper and commoner sorts of wines. With the exception of the finest growths of the Gironde, Burgundy and Germany, practically all the other wines either are blended or could be improved by judicious blending.

When a wine lacks acidity, for instance, and another suffers from an excess of acidity, it stands to reason that by blending the two together a much more palatable wine will be obtained. Both these wines may be the produce of the same vineyard but of different years, or else of different vineyards, more or less favourably situated in the same district ; the price may be much higher one year than another or in one part of a certain district than anywhere else in the same region. Intelligent blending of wines is the only natural and rational way of correcting the faults of two or three or more imperfect wines and of thus creating a type as near perfection as possible or as near the standard of excellence which is aimed at and which will have to be maintained year after year.

Delicate and difficult as the trade in wines is, it would be considerably more difficult, not to say impracticable, were it not that shippers are able, thanks to the art of blending, to maintain the standard of quality and the average cost of their wines as uniform as possible, in spite of the vagaries of the weather from year to year,

Blending is an operation which requires considerable experience, judgment and intelligence ; it is absolutely legitimate, and, moreover, it is the only natural and honest way of improving and rendering more lasting the majority of wines.

CHAPTER III

THE WINE TRADE OF ENGLAND PAST AND PRESENT

THE Romans, during their occupation of Britain, were probably the first to import wine into this country from the Continent, but no documentary evidence of the existence of the English wine trade has yet come to light earlier than the fifth century. It is not before the ninth century, however, that we find regular shipments of wine from Rouen to both England and Ireland, and, during the tenth century, this branch of commerce had acquired sufficient importance to become a source of revenue for the Royal Exchequer, 6s. per shipment of wine having to be paid at Billingsgate by merchants arriving from Rouen. Concomitant evidence of the existence of the wine trade in England at that period is afforded by the rule of St. Ethelwold, who allowed the monks of all Benedictine monasteries to have their "ollae," or large jugs, filled with wine twice a day, for their dinner and supper.

Saxon records make manifest that before the Norman Conquest wines were already in general use, in Britain, for a variety of purposes, wines which are described as being either "clear or strong, austere, soft, sweet, etc." During the eleventh century, the wholesale and retail branches of the wine trade were distinct and both were flourishing. Edward the Confessor decreed that all foreigners were free to come to England, there to sell their wines, but only wholesale and without competing or otherwise interfering with the retail of wines, which should remain the sole privilege of natives of his realm.

After the Norman Conquest, the fact that both sides of the Channel acknowledged the same Sovereign helped materially to increase commercial intercourse between England and the Continent. The wine trade became far more important than it had ever been before and wine was so plentiful that, even during the troubled reign of Stephen, the King was able to fine one of his barons, Matthew de Venum, in 100 casks of wine for a breach of the peace.

By the marriage, in 1152, of Eleanor of Aquitaine to Henri Plantagenet, Duke of Anjou and Normandy, who became King Henry II the following year, Bordeaux and some of the fairest vineyards of France passed under the rule of England and remained under it during three consecutive centuries. The "Claret" trade in England dates from that time. Gascon merchants ceased to be aliens in this country; they were given such facilities to bring over their wines and privileges for selling them in this country that they acquired for a time what amounted practically to a monopoly of the wine trade in England.

The privileged position of "Gascon" wines, as most wines shipped from Bordeaux were usually called, is evidenced by the Royal cellars purchase accounts which have been preserved to this day. When, in 1212, King John paid £507 11s. 0d. for 358 casks of wine, the proportion of Gascon wine was nearly 75 per cent of the whole, i.e.—

267 casks of Gascon wine

54 „ „ Orleans „

8 „ „ Anjou „

26 „ „ Auxerre „

3 „ „ German „

In London, where the Gascon merchants were numerous, wealthy and powerful, the citizens and

aldermen challenged many times their rights and privileges which were conflicting with the terms of royal charters obtained at great expense by the Londoners themselves. Eventually, the Gascon vintners had to make up their mind either to give up their Gascon nationality and settle over here for good and all, or else to give up their former privileges and go back to Bordeaux not later than forty days after landing their wines over here and selling them to London vintners, who were alone to deal with them on this side, either wholesale or by retail.

One of the results of the objection taken by the citizens of London to the ancient trading liberties of Gascon vintners in the metropolis was to divert a fairly large share of the Bordeaux wines to other parts of the Kingdom, chiefly Bristol, Hull, Southampton and Chester, but also to Portsmouth, Exmouth, Sandwich, Winchelsea, Rye, Lynn, Ipswich, etc.

In 1335, Edward III, having prohibited all export of coin, Bordeaux merchants were made to purchase, in exchange for their wines, goods which they did not want or did not understand sufficiently to buy well; in consequence, they preferred to go to Flemish, Dutch and Hanseatic ports, and they ceased almost entirely to come to this country. Hence, the King, the more wealthy lords, both spiritual and temporal, as well as English vintners, were obliged to send to Bordeaux their men, their ships and their money to buy the supplies of wine of which they stood in need. This change was mainly responsible for the rapid increase of the naval strength and maritime preponderance of England. Until then, Gascons, Flemings, Genoese and Germans had shared among themselves practically the whole of the carrying trade, and the necessity which forced English merchants to go overseas and fetch

wines which foreign traders refused to bring over any longer was of the utmost benefit to the country. The King did all in his power to encourage his subjects to build ships for the purpose of commerce, and he granted to them a considerable number of safe-conducts to go to Bordeaux with bullion and return with wine.

The supremacy of the English mercantile marine dates from that time and is closely connected with the importance of the English wine trade in those far-off days when wine cost but 4d. a gallon and was the common beverage of all but the poorest in the land.

It was also during the reign of Edward III that the practice originated of a number of ships sailing from some appointed English port and on some officially appointed day and proceeding to Bordeaux in fleet formation, in order to be better able to defend themselves from attack. Such fleets sailed usually in the late autumn and returned home before Christmas with the "new" wines; they sailed again in the following spring, usually soon after Easter, and returned with the "rack" wines.

When the wine-laden ships reached an English port, the attorneys of the King's Butler, or "Yeomen of the Butlery," had to be advised; their office consisted in taking two casks of wine per ship, or their equivalent value in money, for the King's right of "prise" or "prisage"; they also purchased whatever quantity of wine they had been instructed to secure for the royal cellars and army, as well as for the numerous lay and ecclesiastical beneficiaries of the King's bounty.

Only then could the wine be landed and stored in vaults on or near the quay-side. This landing could only be effected by officially recognized "wine-drawers," skilled in this work, who enjoyed an absolute monopoly.

Once landed, the wine had to be passed by the



VVOE TO DRVNKARDS.

A Sermon by SAMVEL WARD
Preacher of Ipswich.



LONDON,
Printed for Iohn Grismand 1627.

"Gauger," the buyer and seller each paying this official one halfpenny per tun of wine gauged, and it could then be sold, but, again, the services of an official "Broker" were required to make the sale binding. This broker had to see that the price demanded by the seller was not beyond the "maximum" price fixed by civic authorities from time to time for different sorts of wine; he also had to see that the importer of wine sold his wine wholesale, and only to those who were free to buy wholesale, viz., peers of the realm, vintners and taverners.

The retailer of wine had also many royal and municipal ordinances to comply with. The maximum retail prices of wine were fixed by law; besides this, wines of different kinds were not allowed to be kept in the same cellar, so that they could not be mixed together; the consumer had the right to see his wine drawn from the cask; the Vintners' Company in London, and municipal authorities in the provinces, had the right to enter the premises of any taverner and demand to test the wines stored therein and condemn it to be destroyed if they thought fit!

Irksome as all these regulations undoubtedly were, they had all been framed with a view to giving the consumer the greatest possible protection against fakers and profiteers, a protection for which the consumer was made to pay eventually, since the different taxes levied by all the officials through whose hands all wines had to pass were charged for in the retail price of the wine.

Prices, however, remained sufficiently low during 500 years for wine to be within the reach of a very large number of people throughout the land.

From twelfth century records we learn that the average price of wine in England was then 1d. per

gallon. The lowest rate at which we find wine quoted is under $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gallon, in 1159, in London, and the highest is 2d. per gallon, in 1174, for "French" and "Moselle" wines.

During the thirteenth century, "wine," "Gascon" wine and wines of "Anjou," "Auxerre," "Oléron," "France," "La Réole," "Moselle," were sold in all parts of the country at prices varying from $\frac{3}{4}$ d. up to $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gallon, the average price being about 2d. per gallon. Towards the end of the century we find mentions, for the first time, of "Ossey" and "Malvoisie," which were imported from further south and sold at much higher rates, viz., 6d. and 8d. per gallon respectively.

During the fourteenth century, the average price of "Gascon" wine, the wine which then formed probably 80 per cent of the total wine imports, rose to about $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gallon. The lowest recorded was $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. in 1343, at Berwick-on-Tweed, and the highest, $4\frac{1}{4}$ d. in London, in 1338. Poitou and Rochelle wines cost rather less than Gascon and there is a rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gallon charged in London, in 1303, for "old wine," which meant, perhaps, "too old," i.e. defective wine.

On the other hand, *Vernage*, a sweet wine from Italy, was sold at 2s. per gallon, at Durham, in 1335, and *Crete* wine at 4s. in 1360. Rhine wine was sold at 1s. 2d. per gallon, in 1340, at Durham, at $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. in 1367, and 11d. in 1380, at King's Lynn.

During the fifteenth century, the price of "Gascon" wine was fixed at 6d. per gallon, by order, but it fetched commonly 7d. or 8d. per gallon. The chief feature of this century is the decline in the consumption of "Gascon," or beverage wine, and the increased popularity of a large variety of sweet, or at any rate sweeter, wines from Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the

islands of the Mediterranean : such were Bastard, Tyre, Romeney, Malmsey, Osey, Vernage and Hippocras. Irrespective of the " assize " or official maximum prices of all such wines, their cost varied greatly according to their quality, style, scarcity and popularity ; thus, whilst Malmsey cost but 10d. per gallon at Norwich in 1424, Oseye 1s. at Warwick in 1405, and at Cambridge in 1414, Vernage cost 2s. 8d. per gallon at Warwick in 1405, and Hippocras 3s. 4d. at Cambridge in 1488.

During the sixteenth century, references to " Gascon " wine are much less numerous ; this wine was still imported on a large scale, but was more commonly known under the name of " Claret," the price of which rose steadily from 8d. per gallon, in 1510, to 2s. 8d. in 1592, in spite of the fact that its " assize " price was only 8d. per gallon in 1538 and 1539, 1s. in 1565, 1s. 1d. in 1571, and 1s. 4d. from 1578 to 1581.

The price of Rhenish wine also rose during the same period from 1s. per gallon, in 1508, to 3s. 4d. in 1594.

The sweet wines of all kinds, Malmseys, Muscadells and Muscadine, Romeney, Fimoy, Hippocras, etc., continued to be largely imported and were sold at prices varying from 10d. per gallon to as much as 8s. (for Hippocras) in 1587.

The chief feature of the wine trade during the sixteenth century was the introduction and the immediate popularity of *Sack*, the price of which rose from 10d. per gallon in 1533, to 4s. 8d. in 1598, in spite of the fact that its " assize " price was but 1s. 1d. per gallon as late as 1571.

The cheapest wines of all during the sixteenth century were those shipped to England from La Rochelle, mostly thin white wines from Poitou and Angoumois, but their price rose very much during the latter part of the century. Their " assize " price

was only 4d. per gallon as late as 1553, but it was fixed at 1s. 2d. from 1578 to 1781.

William III raised the duties on wine, in 1693, and inaugurated the imposition of a scale of duties on different wines according to their country of origin ; thus, French wine paid £22 2s. 10d. per tun ; Rhenish wine £19 17s. 3d. per tun ; and Spanish and Portuguese wines, £17 13s. 3d. per tun. The same principle was adhered to in 1697, when the duties of French, Rhenish and Peninsular wines were raised to £47 2s. 10d., £26 2s. 10d., and £21 12s. 5d. respectively.

In spite of such excessive duties, and in spite of the heavy taxation necessitated by the prosecution of an expensive war on the Continent, the wine trade remained very active. In giving the detail of the different wines cleared in the port of London in 1694-5, Houghton remarks that the total is only about 17,000 tuns, which, he adds, " is but a small matter considering what was brought in before the War ; for I have been told by the City Gauger that there has come to London in one year 31,000 tuns of wine." This would have been equivalent to 7,812,000 galls. of wine, imported in London alone, or more than a gallon per head of the whole population of Great Britain at that time. This quantity did not strike Houghton as being excessive, for he further stated that "'tis a pity we do not drink 30 gallons a head. . . "

The history of the wine trade in England during the eighteenth century is chiefly remarkable for the rapid decline in the consumption of French wines, and the favour which the wines of Portugal came to enjoy.

When William of Orange ascended the English throne, his arch enemy, Louis XIV, was at the zenith of his glory. Louis' power on the Continent, the hospitality he accorded to the exiled Stuarts, his treatment of

the Huguenots, and Colbert's commercial policy, were all calculated to inspire the King and the people of England with feelings of hatred against France and everything French. When Queen Anne succeeded William III, her Government knew that any measure likely to cause serious prejudice to the French was sure to be immensely popular. Accordingly they sought to ruin one of the most important and prosperous branches of France's trade, the trade in wines, by admitting the wine of Portugal in England on payment of £7 per tun, whilst the wines of France were to pay £55 per tun. This was the object of the famous Methuen Treaty signed in 1703.

Protests were at first loud and numerous : General Churchill, Marlborough's brother, the rich Pereira, the jovial Portman Seymour, Dean Aldrich, "the Apostle of Bacchus," Doctor Ratcliffe, who ascribed all diseases to the lack of French wines, and a host of bottle companions, poets and satirists, lawyers and physicians, during the reign of Queen Anne, would and did drink their favourite Claret, in spite of treaties and duties. However exorbitant the charge for French wines, there was a demand for them so long as the generation of men lasted who had been boys in Charles II's time, but the generations which followed never had the opportunity of appreciating the vintages of France sufficiently to pay the price demanded for them ; their consumption gradually decreased almost to vanishing point, and, in that respect, the promoters of the Methuen Treaty attained the object they had in view.

During the first half of the eighteenth century, Port had little to recommend it but its cheapness, but, during the second half of the same century, both the price and the quality of Port were raised gradually, with the result that the popularity of the wine, as

shown by the figures relating to imports, increased steadily until the superiority of Port over all other wines became part and parcel of the creed of every true-born and true-hearted Englishman.

During the first half of the nineteenth century, the wine trade of England was in the hands of a comparatively small number of private wine-merchants, who obtained their supplies direct from abroad or from a few large wholesale houses in London. Nobody, then, would have dared deny that the first duty of a wine was to be red and its second to be sweet. Stout, dark vintage ports were the rule ; full, sweet sherries and brown Madeiras were their only competitors in the public favour. Sweet Champagne was becoming more popular amongst the wealthy classes, and there was only a very limited demand for the Hocks and Clarets Germany and France could produce.

Cheap wines were then practically unknown, and cash payments would have been resented as an insult. A wine merchant was expected to be a gentleman possessed of considerable means and knowledge, which enabled him to give his customer long credit and fine quality ; his prices were no more questioned than the fees of the physician.

This state of affairs came to an abrupt end in the sixties, when Gladstone revolutionized the wine trade of England.

On 29th February, 1860, the duty on every description of wine was lowered to 3s. per gallon. On 1st January, 1861, this uniform rate was superseded by the imposition of a scale of duties, based on the degree of strength, according to Sykes's hydrometer, ranging from 1s. per gallon on wines containing less than 18° of alcohol, to 2s. 11d. per gallon on wines containing 45° of alcohol. On 3rd April, 1862, this scale was further revised and

lowered, all wines containing less than 26° of alcohol being admitted at the rate of 1s. per gallon, whilst those containing more, up to 42°, were to pay 2s. 6d. per gallon.

Such a drastic reduction in the duties on wine was bound to have an immediate and considerable influence upon the consumption of wine in England, but Gladstone went even further. When, in 1860, he introduced his first measure for lowering the duties on wine, he concurrently brought in a Bill to facilitate its consumption, by granting free scope to keepers of refreshment houses of good character to sell wine on the premises, on payment of certain Excise licences, irrespective of magisterial jurisdiction. This Bill, which duly passed into law, was followed by the "Single Bottle Act" of 1861, which enabled all shopkeepers to retail wine to be drunk off the premises. Furthermore, whilst a "dealer" in wine had to pay 10 guineas for a wine-merchant's licence; "any person (not being a dealer) who kept a shop for the sale of any goods or commodities other than foreign wines, in England and Ireland," was allowed to sell wine not to be consumed on the premises, by retail, in reputed quart or pint bottles only, on payment of 50s. for an "off-licence."

This measure proved more far-reaching than the reduction of duties. It opened new channels to the activities of grocers, drapers, limited liability company promoters, brewers, co-operative societies, and others. It threw the wine trade open to all, since every shopkeeper was henceforth free to sell wine on the payment of 50s. to the Excise.

Gladstone's wine policy, inaugurated in 1860, has been practically adhered to ever since; it has, therefore, been given nearly sixty years' trial, and we can now

form a fair estimate of the influence it has had on the wine trade in England.

From 1860 till 1876, the clearances of wine from bond show a gradual increase from less than 9,000,000 gallons to over 18,000,000 gallons.

French wines were responsible for the greater share of this remarkable increase. In two single years only, between 1800 and 1860, did the consumption of French wines in England reach 500,000 galls.; it had even rarely attained 200,000 galls. per annum. In 1860, however, the clearances of French wines from bond amounted to 1,125,599 galls.; in 1862 they were 2,227,662 galls.; in 1868 they reached 4,502,162 galls.

But the enormous increase in the clearances from bond of French as well as other wines, from 1860 till 1876, did not really represent as great an increase in the actual consumption of wine throughout the land during that period.

The number of wine sellers had increased far more rapidly than the number of wine drinkers. All sorts and conditions of men entered the wine trade during the twenty years which followed the reduction of duties and the passing of the "Single Bottle Act." All the newcomers had to build up stocks before they could hope to do any business; most of them lacked the knowledge, and many lacked the means necessary to embark successfully in the wine trade. On the other hand, they all seem to have been possessed of much energy and of unbounded confidence in the future. Their energy gained them some customers, but their enthusiasm led them to hope for better results than they actually obtained, the consequence being an accumulation of stocks all over the country.

A few gave up the fight, but others took up their

places, and the consumption not having increased in nearly the same proportion as either imports or importers, competition became keener and less fair ; the practice of small profits and cash payments was introduced and rapidly gained ground. It benefited the wine trade at first, by placing wine within the reach of a greater number of people ; this, however, was but a passing benefit, soon to be followed by a serious calamity.

During the seventies, wine was both abundant and excellent, owing to a series of fine vintages, so that remarkable value could be offered to the consumer. Unfortunately, plenty was followed by a woeful scarcity during the eighties, when the phylloxera had devastated the choicest vineyards of France. Good wine became scarce and expensive, and wine merchants on this side had to ask higher prices. It was then, however, that the " Gladstone " wine sellers, whose name was legion, committed the fatal mistake of persevering with their low prices and " cheap lines " ; they could only do so by giving very bad quality, but human nature being what we know it to be, the man who allowed himself to be tempted by the low prices offered by ignorant or unscrupulous dealers, blamed the wine he drank for not suiting his constitution or his palate, and, in many cases, he gave up drinking wine and learnt to resign himself to barley water and patent medicines.

From 1868 till 1883, the average annual home consumption of wine was maintained well over 16,000,000 galls. ; then the check came with bad vintages, and from 1884 till 1889 the annual average was under 14,000,000 galls. Vineyards were rapidly replanted, and good wine was once more made in fair quantity. Wine merchants once more replenished their stocks

and the clearances from bond increased to an annual average of some 15,000,000 galls. from 1890 till 1902. Whilst stocks of wine and the number of wine sellers were again on the increase, the consumption of wine remained stationary, or even decreased. The phylloxera had destroyed vineyards, but low prices, which spelt bad quality, had destroyed the confidence of a large number of former wine drinkers, and this evil has been even more disastrous than the first.

When the real truth of the position became absolutely evident, imports of wine received a serious check ; the clearances from bond, from 1903 till 1910 inclusive, gradually decreased and only reached an average of some 12,000,000 galls. per year. In 1911 the clearances of wine from bond were only 11,274,146 galls., or nearly 7,000,000 less than in 1873, whilst the proportion of wine consumed per head of the population in 1911 was smaller than the corresponding figure for 1859, when duties were higher and when the wine trade was in the hands of a much smaller number of wine merchants.

During the ten years which preceded the outbreak of war, the consumption of wine in Great Britain was not equal to the quantities of wine imported, so that, in 1914, larger stocks existed than, probably, at any other time in the history of the wine trade in this country.

The War checked imports and stimulated the consumption of wine. The poor quality of the "Government" beer and the shortage of home-made spirits, due to the fact that most distilleries were commandeered, led many beer and spirit drinkers in the land to turn to wine for the stimulants they needed all the more that they were living through strenuous times. Women in receipt of the separation allowance, temporary

gentlemen in camp at home or on furlough from overseas, munitions workers and a host of well-paid officials in newly-created departments, had never been so well off before and felt that they were entitled to share in the amenities of life and drink wine. Shipments of wine were very irregular and totally inadequate, with the result that existing stocks went into consumption and the price of wine, good, bad and indifferent alike, rose considerably.

During the year 1919, when it became once more possible to import wines practically from all wine-growing countries, imports of wine and clearances from bond reached the unprecedented figures of 26,950,281 galls. for imports and 19,232,172 galls. for clearances from bond. During the year 1919, as happens after every national crisis, all prices were inflated and everybody in the land who had anything to sell made enormous profits and spent freely money which had been easily made. The consumption of wine was considerably higher in 1919 than at any time during the preceding twenty years, but imports were all the same far in excess of the consumption, depleted cellars being stocked once more by merchants all over the country.

With the year 1920 the inevitable reaction set in. Stocks of all raw materials and manufactured articles purchased at excessive prices could not be sold profitably; in many cases they could not be sold even at a loss. Fortunes which had been quickly made were lost even more rapidly and the prevalent shortage of money enforced a general curtailment of all expenditure upon luxuries. The sale of wines suffered in consequence and, to make matters worse, the Chancellor of the Exchequer doubled the Customs duty upon all wines and added a penal tax of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent *ad valorem*

upon all sparkling wines.¹ This severe taxation imposed upon a falling market staggered the wine trade. Wine continued to be imported, although upon a much smaller scale, in fulfilment of past contracts, but little wine was cleared from bond and less still was dispatched from merchants' cellars to consumers' tables.

The vicissitudes of the English Wine Trade have been many during the last nine centuries and the present depression, serious as it is, is not the worst that has ever been experienced.

Owing to the War, to short crops and the enormous consumption of wine by troops and civilians on the Continent, there is very little wine available which is old enough for present consumption, and it may be that the present acute depression will help shippers abroad to build up once more their exhausted stocks so that they will supply better value to the merchant when, as it is permissible to hope, the swing of the pendulum brings back better days.

¹ Duties on wines (including Vermouth) previous to the Finance Act, 1920.

| | Full Duty. per Gall. s. d. | Preferential Duty. |
|--|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Wines not exceeding 30° of Proof Spirit | 1 3 | 60% of full rate. |
| Exceeding 30° but not exceeding 42° of Proof Spirit | 3 0 | 66⅔% of full rate. |
| For every degree or part of a degree beyond the highest above charged an additional duty | 3 | |
| Additional — | | |
| Still wines imported in bottles | 1 0 | 50% of full rate. |
| Sparkling wines imported in bottles | 2 6 | 70% of full rate. |

The Finance Act, 1921, abolished the *ad valorem* duty on sparkling wines but raised the duty from 7s. 6d. to 15s. per gallon.

CHAPTER IV

THE WORLD'S OUTPUT OF WINE

THE vine is not only one of the most ancient of the plants we know, but it is also one of the most universal. It holds a unique place in the marvellously ordained economy of our wonderful world, being at the same time the most fruitful of all plants or trees and the only one which will grow—which is meant by Nature to grow—in the most barren soils. This is so true that it may be safely asserted that the poorer the soil the better will be the wine. A poor, light, chalky soil, such as at Cognac, Avize or Jerez; sandy, stony gravel, as in Médoc; decomposed granite as at Hermitage; soft or hard slate as on the banks of the Moselle; hard schist or granite as in the valley of the Douro; soils which are not suitable for either corn, beet or even grass, there will the vine grow and prosper.

On the other hand, and as a consequence of the poor soil of most vineyards, it may be asserted that no other culture requires so much individual intelligence and incessant care as does viticulture. So that the vine does not only hold a prominent position economically, rendering valuable otherwise valueless lands, but also, and chiefly socially, as a civilizing agent. The vine is *par excellence* the plant of peaceful lands; nomadic Arabs and roaming gipsies sow corn and root crops but move on as soon as their harvest is gathered. Not so the vine-grower, whose patient and arduous labours can never be repaid until some years after he has planted those vines which attach him to the soil, which he learns to tend with that loving and intelligent care

the like of which is not to be found in any other branch of agriculture.

In 1880, before the devastating career of the phylloxera in Europe, the recorded area of the world's vineyards was 23,749,000 acres, and Europe, thanks to its much more highly civilized population, that is to say, people with more refined taste and many more wants, people of more stable habits and more intelligently industrious, was responsible for nearly 96 per cent of the total. The figures were then—

22,769,000 acres of cultivated vineyards in Europe ;
980,000 acres of cultivated vineyards in the rest
of the world.

Since then, a very large proportion of the European vineyards have been destroyed by the phylloxera and only partly replanted, whilst new vineyards have been planted in other parts of the world, chiefly in South America and Northern Africa. The present recorded area of the world's vineyards shows a decrease of over 2,500,000 acres in Europe, and an increase of some 38,000 acres in other continents.

| CONTINENTS. | VINEYARDS. |
|---------------------|------------------|
| Europe | 20,200,075 Acres |
| America | 460,968 |
| Africa | 448,532 |
| Australia | 61,698 |
| Asia | 47,542 |
| Total. | 21,218,815 |

EUROPE

In Europe, the chief wine-producing countries have been greatly affected by the War, as is shown by the official figures on the next page giving the quantities of wine produced in 1919 compared to those representing the pre-war average production.

| | Pre-war average 1,000 galls. | 1919 1,000 galls. |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. France | 1,333,728 | 1,215,463 |
| 2. Italy | 1,078,362 | 770,000 |
| 3. Spain | 378,935 | 438,900 |
| 4. Portugal | 84,333 | 86,900 |
| 5. Germany | 54,092 | 47,317 |
| 6. Hungary | 77,183 | 44,000 |
| 7. Greece | 45,650 | 28,600 |
| 8. Rumania | 47,667 | 14,300 |
| 9. Switzerland | 22,807 | 11,110 |
| 10. Austria | 136,731 | 4,400 |
| 11. Luxembourg | 2,449 | 1,716 |
| 12. Russia | 57,200 | nil |
| 13. Bulgaria | 45,467 | nil |
| 14. Turkey in Europe | 35,200 | nil |
| 15. Servia | 12,320 | nil |

France. Of all wine-producing countries France is unequalled, not only for the quantity but also for the quality and the great variety of wines she produces.

With the exception of the few *Départements* of the northern and north-western seaboard, France produces wine in all parts of her territory, but in greater quantities in the *Départements* of the Mediterranean seaboard and of greater excellence in the three *Départements* of "Gironde," "Marne" and "Côte d'Or."

The vineyards of the "Gironde" yield Claret, those of the "Marne" Champagne, and those of the "Côte d'Or" the best Burgundy. The other vineyards of France may be said to grace the valleys of all the great rivers throughout the land, the Seine, the Yonne, the Loire, the Saône, the Rhône, the Doubs, the Charente, the Dordogne, the Garonne, the Lot, the Rhine and the Moselle.

By far the greatest proportion of the wines of France are consumed locally. There are about 1,500,000 vineyard owners in France, and nearly a third of that

number are small holders who grow vines and make wine for their own consumption only. There are also many wines made in France which are not suitable for export, but there are a great many different kinds, besides the wines of the Marne, Gironde and Côte d'Or, which are both distinctive and excellent. Chief among these are the famous white wines of Chablis, from the Yonne *Département*; red and white Burgundy from the *Département* of Saône et Loire; still and sparkling white wines from Saumur, Touraine, Anjou and the whole of the lower valley of the Loire; Hermitage, Chateauneuf du Pape and many other well known growths of the Rhône Valley, and last, but by no means least, the dry white wines of the Alsace-Lorraine vineyards which produced, in 1919, over 16,000,000 galls. of wine.

Italy. Italy is, after France, the largest wine-producing country of the world, and it may be said to be one large vineyard from Lombardy and Tuscany in the north down to Sicily in the extreme south.

Some sparkling wines are made on the low hills of the Asti and Montferrat region, whilst dry red wines are made in very large quantities in Tuscany. These are both pleasant and wholesome, although they are exported to this country only in comparatively small quantities. The most renowned white Italian wines are those from the vineyards of Capri, whilst Marsala produces a large quantity of luscious wines of great excellence.

Spain. Spain possesses a temperate climate and a generally arid calcareous soil highly congenial to the culture of the vine. From north to south and from east to west, sites, soils and aspects of the happiest kind are to be met with in every part of the country, and luxuriant vineyards are to be seen on the slopes of

almost every hill or mountain ; yet there is but a small percentage of the vinous wealth of Spain ever sent abroad.

The most famous of all Spanish wines is the wine of Jerez, or Sherry, from the province of Western Andalucia, in the extreme south-western corner of Spain.

The most prolific vineyards of Spain are those of Catalonia which produced, in 1919, close upon 180,000,000 galls. of wine. The majority of the wines of this province are stout and useful but not fine ; large quantities are shipped to England under the name Tarragona, one of the best wine-growing districts of Catalonia.

Besides Sherry and Tarragona, Spain exports wines from Valencia, Alicante and Malaga, and she produces very large quantities of other wines which are never, or hardly ever, sent abroad.

Portugal. Portugal, as well from its geographical position, benignant climate and geological conformation, as from other propitious circumstances, is admirably adapted to viticulture. Vines are grown and wines are made in many parts of Portugal, but the only wines which will bear exporting are those grown in the immediate vicinity of Lisbon and in the valley of the Douro. Some 200 years ago the wines of Lisbon were more prized in London than those of Oporto, whilst we received up to the middle of the last century a fairly large quantity of white Lisbon wines, Collares, Bucellas and Carcavellos from Portugal. The fame of all other Portuguese wines, however, has been eclipsed by the popularity of Port.

The quantity of wine produced in Portugal, in 1919, was nearly 800,000 pipes, of which 147,153 pipes were produced in the valley of the Douro ; 51,258 pipes were southern wines (Lisbons) of the "rich" type ;

562,538 pipes were ordinary beverage wines, and 37,738 pipes were only suitable for distillation.

Germany. Antiquarian finds of Roman wine cups and wine-making implements in Germany, as well as the writings of ancient Roman historians, leave no doubt whatsoever as to the antiquity of viticulture in Germany. It is not so generally known, however, that the trade in Rhine and Moselle wines was flourishing in England as far back as the reigns of Edgar, Ethelred II, and Edward the Confessor.

Viticulture, in Germany, and the imports of German wines into this country have never attained and never can attain a very considerable development. Vines will only grow within a comparatively small area in Germany, but they still flourish where they have been growing for many centuries past.

The average output of wine in Germany was 54,000,000 galls. before the war, where it included the production of the extensive vineyards of the two French provinces taken by the Germans in 1871. German vineyards proper yield only 38,000,000 galls. on an average, Bavaria being responsible for about 12,000,000 galls., Baden for 8,500,000 galls., Rhenish Prussia 9,000,000 galls., Würtemberg and Hesse each about 5,000,000 galls.

Besides her own legitimate Hocks and Moselles, the quantity of which is small and the cost of which is very great at present, Germany has also still and sparkling wines made either partly or even entirely of grapes, "must," or wine purchased outside Germany, wines which are "made" in Germany and shipped from Germany, but are not truly German wines.

Hungary. Hungary produces a large variety of wines but none comparable in excellence to the Tokay.

Greece. Greece has seen her territory considerably

enlarged during the series of wars which have devastated many of her vineyards between the years 1912 and 1919, and her output of wine is only about half what it was.

Switzerland. Switzerland produces on an average nearly four times more wine than the whole of Australia, but, in 1919, the vintage was a failure and the yield only half that of an average year.

In **Austria**, the pre-war production of wine was over 136,000,000 galls. per annum; in **Rumania** the average pre-war annual production was over 17,000,000 galls.; in **Bulgaria**, it was over 45,000,000 galls.; in what used to be known as "**Turkey in Europe**" it was over 85,000,000 galls., including the wines of the island of **Cyprus**; in **Servia** it was over 12,000,000 galls., and in **Southern Russia** the production of wine was over 57,000,000 galls. per annum, but there are no figures available at present showing to what extent the vineyards of those unhappy lands have suffered during the last few years.

AFRICA

After Europe, Africa is the largest wine-producing Continent, chiefly owing to the activities of the French vineyard owners in Algeria.

| | Pre war average 1,000 galls. | 1919 1,000 galls. |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| Algeria | 180,647 | 171,234 |
| Tunis | 6,233 | 9,020 |
| South Africa | 4,228 | 2,660 |

Algeria. Forty years ago the total wine output of Algeria was not equal to the needs of the local white population, and large quantities of beverage wines were imported from France. The position has long since been entirely reversed.

In 1864, Algeria produced 1,430,000 galls. of wine, and imported 8,800,000 galls. from France.

In 1878, Algeria produced 22,000,000 galls. of wine, and began to export wine to France.

In 1898 Algeria produced over 110,000,000 galls. of wine, and exported 72,600,000 galls. to France.

The yield of the year 1914 was a record which has never been broken, viz. 226,600,000 galls. The output of the last five years shows a downgrade tendency, but not an alarming one, the average remaining over 160,000,000 galls. per annum.

During the last two years the Algerian wine production has been as follows—

| DISTRICTS. | 1918 Galls. | 1919 Galls. |
|-----------------------|----------------|----------------|
| Algiers | 59,387,174 | 74,120,904 |
| Constantine | 16,572,710 | 13,780,514 |
| Oran | 63,502,604 | 83,220,852 |
| Other parts | 85,734 | 111,804 |
| Total | 139,548,222 | 171,234,074 |

South Africa. The fruitful vine is cultivated in many parts of Cape Colony, and vineyards are also to be found in the Transvaal, but the most important vineyards are all situated in the south-western districts of the Cape; in other districts, such as Graaf-Reinet, and in the Eastern Province, grapes are chiefly grown for raisins, or, if pressed, the wine they yield is usually distilled. By far the most famous of the Cape wines is that of Constantia, produced at a wine-farm of that name, founded about 1690 by Simon van der Stell, at no great distance from Cape Town, and practically at the foot of Table Mountain. Next to Constantia in point of quality, the best wines of South Africa are

those of the Cape proper, Stellenbosch, Somerset West, Caledon, Paarl, Wellington, and Malmesbury, all of which are produced by the vineyards of what may be called the coastal area. Farther inland, at Worcester, Robertson, Montagu, Ladysmith, and Oudtshoorn, the vines are cultivated on rich alluvial soil in sheltered valleys, and produce a greater quantity of grapes than it is possible to obtain anywhere else, yielding as much as 1,600 galls. of wine per acre, which is more than double the greatest yield obtainable in the coastal districts. Quantity, however, is never obtained but at the expense of quality, and the bulk of the wines made inland is and never can be otherwise than indifferent in quality. The vines cultivated in South Africa were originally the same *Riesling* as on the Rhine, the same *Pedro Ximenes* as at Jerez, the same *Shiraz* as at Hermitage, the same *Cabernet Sauvignon*, *Malbec*, or *Verdot* as in the Médoc ; but these vines grow in much richer soil than these species ever grew in Europe, and their growth is assisted by mild winters, showery springs, and fine, dry summers, the like of which has never been seen in any other part of the world. As a result, the same vines bear an enormously greater proportion of grapes in South Africa than in either France, Germany, Spain, or Portugal ; when these grapes are pressed, their sweet juice is found to be quite different from the juice of the same species of grapes grown in European vineyards ; it contains a great deal more sugar and water, but the other component parts do not increase in nearly the same ratio, so that the wine which is eventually made from South African grapes may be more luscious and possess greater alcoholic strength than the wine made from similar grapes grown in Europe, but it is certainly totally different.

Azores, Canaries, and Madeira. The vineyards of these islands, off the coast of Africa, are responsible for some 3,000,000 galls. of wine, on an average, every year. The best wine of these islands is a rich, generous type of wine, and it is not too much to say that there is no finer dessert wine in the world than fine old Madeira.

Egypt. There are vineyards in Egypt but very little Egyptian wine is ever drunk. The best vineyards yield grapes which are dried and sold as raisins or "sultanas"; the others yield grapes from which a poor wine is made, which is used mostly for distillation.

AMERICA

The United States of America, having chosen to adopt the tenets of the Koran, preferring to follow the law of Mahommed rather than St. Paul's advice to Timothy, the flourishing vineyards of California cannot be counted any longer as part of the world's wine-producing areas. A little wine is made in Canada, and a little in Mexico, but there is really no large wine-producing district in America, except in the South, where the cultivation of the vine is growing rapidly in importance.

South America

| | Pre-war average 1,000 galls. | 1919 1,000 galls. |
|--------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| Argentina. | 26,767 | 77,000 |
| Chili | 49,867 | 48,400 |
| Brazil | 8,287 | 10,560 |
| Uruguay | 2,171 | 4,400 |
| Peru | 7,150 | 7,150 |
| Bolivia | 638 | 1,386 |

In the Argentine, the production of wine is kept down on purpose to keep up prices, but even as it is, it exceeds the needs of the population, and large

quantities of Argentine wine were exported to France during the war for the needs of the armies in the field. As regards quality, the wines of Chili are greatly superior to those of the Argentine, where they find a ready and profitable market, so much so that the import of French still wines into the Argentine, which amounted to close upon 9,000,000 galls. in 1914, are now almost nil.

AUSTRALIA

The dearth and great cost of skilled labour in Australia is a serious handicap to viticulture. On the other hand, it has caused vine-growers to seek and adopt some extremely ingenious mechanical labour-saving devices in the manufacture of wine. Wine-making in Australia is, accordingly, less of an art but more of a scientifically conducted industry than in Europe.

The average production of Australian wines is about 6,000,000 galls. and the imports of Australian wines in England, during the last few years, have been as follows—

| | Imports. | Clearances from bond. |
|-----------------|----------|--------------------------|
| 1917 | 289,518 | 343,396 |
| 1918 | 176,029 | 248,328 |
| 1919 | 465,989 | 470,573 |
| Average 1917/19 | 310,512 | 354,099 |

CHAPTER V

PORT

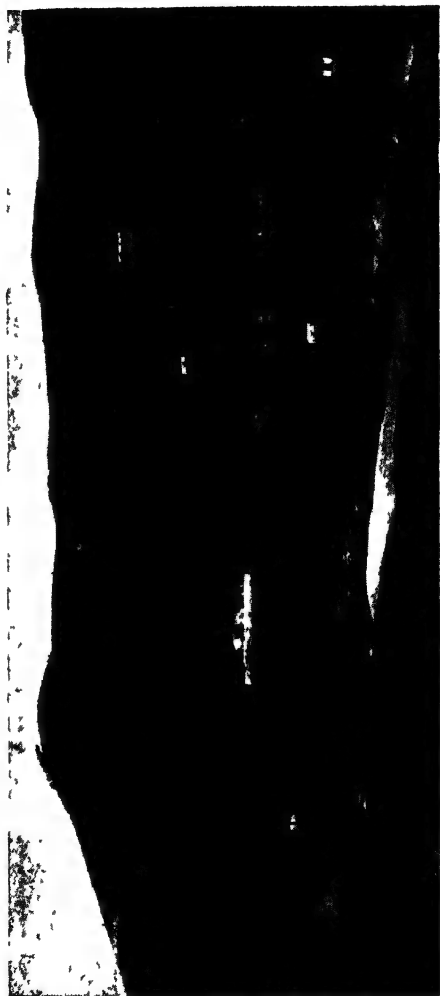
PORT is of all wines the most interesting for an Englishman. Quite apart from its own intrinsic merits, Port is a wine which owes its existence chiefly to the industry of Englishmen. Furthermore, it is a wine which cannot be drunk to such perfection nor be so thoroughly appreciated anywhere in the world as in England.

Although authenticated shipments of wine from Portugal to England may be traced to the fourteenth century, it was only during the latter part of the sixteenth century that the trade between England and Oporto became regular and fairly important. At that time, some adventurous West Country merchants, most of them Devonshire men, went to Oporto and Lisbon and settled there; their principal business was to buy locally and send to England the produce of the vast Empire of Brazil, lately discovered by the Portuguese and closed by them to the trade of all other nations.

During the seventeenth century, the English fleets cruising in the Atlantic were repeatedly ordered to repair either to Oporto or Lisbon, and there take on board large quantities of wine for the use of the men. Rum was not known then, and all men-of-war crews had a daily allowance of wine. Such orders for the fleet helped to induce the English merchants at Oporto to devote their spare time to viticulture and to plant more vineyards along the sun-baked hills of the Douro valley.

The Portuguese wine-growers were then, and for many

DOURO VINEYARDS



years afterwards, totally different from the intelligent and hard-working growers of France. A most ignorant class, they had neither the means nor the wish to find a foreign market for their wines ; they were plagued with the most corrupt and despicable officials, who were altogether incapable of educating them, of improving their condition, or of protecting their interests. Under these circumstances, the first Englishmen who settled at Oporto were able to obtain from the growers, at ridiculously low prices, wines which they could sell easily and profitably in England. This encouraged them to stay and to devote much trouble, time and money to the extension and proper care of vineyards. Both Charles II and William of Orange prohibited the import of French wines into England and greatly helped thereby the rising trade in Portuguese wines. These were further granted a most privileged position by the Methuen Treaty in 1703, being admitted in this country upon payment of £7 duty per tun, whilst the duty on French wines was fixed at £55 per tun.

Thus encouraged by the legislature, the Port wine trade grew with prodigious rapidity, and it is no less remarkable that, in spite of the competition of Germans, Dutchmen, and of the Portuguese themselves, the lion's share of the Port trade has been kept to this day in the hands of English firms and Englishmen, some of whom trace back their pedigree to the original seventeenth century settlers.

The industry of a few West Country merchants, the protection of the home government, the comparatively low price of the wine, all helped to establish the popularity of Port in England. But the main cause of this well-deserved popularity is to be sought in the wine itself, and in the fact that it is most eminently suited to the English climate and constitution.

Port is a fortified wine, which means that in the making of Port the art of man intervenes to improve upon Nature.

When the grapes are ripe, they are picked and brought to what is known as a *lagar*, i.e. a large, square stone trough. This being filled, a number of bare-legged men enter it and dance and jump about to the tune of much music and song, until the whole *lagar* is a mass of discoloured husks in a purple sea of "must" or grape-juice. This is left alone in the *lagars* for three or four days during which the microscopic agents known as *Saccharomycetes* or "ferments," which are to be found in thousands on all grape-skins, begin their work. They attack the natural sugar which the sunshine has stored in the grapes, and which makes grape-juice so sweet, and they transform this sugar into alcohol and carbonic acid gas. The alcohol remains in what was grape-juice, but is now becoming wine, whilst the carbonic acid gas loses itself in the air. This is known as the process of fermentation ; it goes on at a very rapid pace at first, but it is checked by the alcohol present in the mass of the liquid and accordingly becomes slower every day.

After a time, when fermentation has "eaten up" or transformed a certain proportion of the grape-sugar into alcohol, all further fermentation is definitely checked by the addition of brandy, i.e. spirit distilled from wine. This raises the alcoholic degree of the mass so much that no further fermentation is possible, and the unfermented portion of the original grape-sugar remains in its natural state. The newly-made wines are then carted down from the *quintas*, or farms on the hillside, down to the river Douro, and sent by barges to Oporto, there to be stored in vast warehouses or lodges.

Once that stage is reached, the Port wine shippers have to decide whether the new wines shall be shipped

as vintage wines or not. In the first case, the wines are sent over here, as a rule two years after the vintage, and bottled soon after. Slowly does the wine thus bottled go on improving, the added brandy gradually losing some of its strength and "feeding" upon some of the original grape-sugar left in the wine, to combine with it and to form that captivating and generous wine we all know as vintage Port.

On the other hand, if the wines made at the vintage lack the bouquet, body, or "quality" indispensable if they are to last on their own merits for years to come, improving as time goes on, then they are kept at Oporto. Stored in large casks and frequently refilled with better-class wines kept in reserve for that purpose from good years, these wines gradually improve in quality and, after many years of intelligent care, the outcome will be what we know as tawny Port—a wine lighter in colour and in body, owing to the fact that it has been kept in casks to which the air has access, instead of in bottles which are almost airtight.

It also happens sometimes that a vintage Port, that is, a Port which is fit to be bottled early and to last on its own merits, will be kept in wood for a more or less extended number of years before it is bottled. The result will be a wine with less colour and strength than the early bottled vintage Port, but with more body and colour than tawny Port. This wine is often described as "Ruby" Port.

There are in the Douro valley some 65,000 acres of vines, and they yield an average of 100,000 pipes of wine per annum—of *Douro* wine, of course, but not all *Port* wine.

Port is a name with a twofold meaning: it is both geographical and generic. It serves to designate a certain type of wine made in a certain way, but only

when produced in a particular district and shipped from a particular port.

Port stands for Oporto, the port at the mouth of the river Douro, and it has been applied during the last two and a half centuries to the wine shipped from Oporto. But the mere fact of coming from Oporto was, obviously, never meant to entitle any kind of wine to the name of Port, a name to which no wine has any



PORT WINE LODGE

right which does not fulfil the three conditions laid down by the Portuguese law of 1915, viz. : (1) a fortified wine ; (2) produced in the Douro region, as demarcated by law ; (3) exported through the Bar of Oporto.

The shipments of wine from Oporto rose very rapidly during the second half of the last century : from 16,690 pipes in 1858, they reached 40,483 in 1866 ; 61,278 in 1877 ; 85,348 in 1888, and 116,583 in 1892. But all these wines were not Port, although they all passed through Oporto ; some were wines from the south of Portugal, sent to Villa Nova de Gaia, blended there

and shipped later under the name of Port. This practice was never legitimate, but it became practically a necessity when the phylloxera had devastated the vineyards of the Douro Valley and reduced the production considerably. American plants were introduced to replace the vines destroyed by the phylloxera; old vineyards were replanted, and many new vineyards were planted by people who were tempted by the high prices paid for wine not only in Portugal, but also and even chiefly in France, whither much Portuguese wine was shipped at very profitable prices.

The new American plants are more prolific than the old vines, so that, at the beginning of this century, when the newly planted and the re-planted vineyards began to be in full bearing, there was a glut of wine at Oporto, due, on the one hand, to the largely increased output in the valley of the Douro, and, on the other, to the fact that French vineyards were once more yielding crops which rendered unnecessary purchases of Portuguese beverage wines.

In 1906, the total shipments of wine were 5,280,000 galls., or 20 per cent less than in 1899, whilst the shipments of wine "other than Port" were 11,440,000 galls., or only about 1 per cent below those of 1898.

The farmers of the Douro, greatly and justly alarmed by this state of affairs, made strong representations to the Lisbon Government, and demanded to be protected by national laws and international treaties from the unfair competition of Spanish and south of Portugal wines, wrongly described and sold as "Port."

They succeeded, after years of agitation, in securing a greater measure of justice and protection than is accorded to the wine-growers of any other part of the world, whether British or not. The area outside

which no wine can be made which is entitled to the name of Port has been strictly delimited by law.

The same has been done at Cognac, in Champagne, and elsewhere, but where the Douro growers have won a truly invaluable victory is in having secured for their wines the protection of British law, British customs and police officials, a protection which the wines of other lands are not yet privileged to receive.

The Anglo-Portuguese Treaty is quite as important as the famous Methuen Treaty of 1703, as regards the privileged position it accords to the wines of Portugal and Madeira. The Methuen Treaty made it possible to buy Portuguese wines in England much cheaper than those of France; the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of 1916 makes it possible to buy Port and Madeira in all confidence, and, as we all know, confidence is the soul of commerce, hence the unprecedented increase in the sales of Portuguese wines.

During the four pre-war years and the four years of the War, our imports of wines from Portugal have been as follows—

| PRE-WAR YEARS. | | YEARS OF THE WAR. | |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| | Gallons. Pipes (approx) | | Gallons. Pipes (approx) |
| 1910 | 3,795,229 33,000 | 1915 | 3,970,570 34,527 |
| 1911 | 3,201,592 27,840 | 1916 | 6,230,873 54,181 |
| 1912 | 3,306,582 28,753 | 1917 | 2,578,120 22,418 |
| 1913 | 3,623,061 31,505 | 1918 | 6,660,496 57,917 |

In 1919, the imports of wine from Portugal into the United Kingdom reached the unprecedented figure of 13,462,253 galls. or 117,063 pipes.

How is it, one may ask, that it has been possible to ship such enormously larger quantities of Port wine after the Portuguese and British Governments had

restricted the use of the name "Port" to the wines of the Douro? The answer is that whilst wines from Lisbon and other parts of Portugal can no longer be shipped from Oporto under the name of "Port," any and every kind of beverage wine, or "consumo" made



ENTRANCE TO QUINTA

in the valley of the Douro now, may be and has been fortified and shipped from Oporto under the name of "Port," to which such wine is now "legally" entitled.

Before the War, the annual average production of Port in the valley of the Douro was a little more than 30,000 pipes, or about half the total quantity of wine

produced in the district. If the production of Port was not greater, it was because only about half the quantity of wine produced in the valley of the Douro was suitable for the making of Port, and neither Portuguese nor English laws can improve the quality of the common beverage, "consumo" wines of the Douro. But such wines being cheap to buy and "Port" being easy to sell, a number of enterprising individuals, mostly Portuguese, saw their opportunity and blossomed out into "Port Wine Shippers." These are the people who are responsible for the large quantities of most objectionable wines legally entitled to the name of Port placed on the English market since the Armistice.

The following is a representative list of some of the Port Shippers who have shipped "Port" for many years before the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of 1916—

| | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| Butler | Mackenzie |
| Cockburn | Martinez |
| Croft | Morgan |
| Delaforce | Offley |
| Dixon | Rebello Valente |
| Dow | Sandeman |
| Ferreira | Smith Woodhouse |
| Feuerheerd | Stormonth Tait |
| Fonseca | Taylor Fladgate |
| Gonzalez | Tuke (Hunt) |
| Gould Campbell | Van Zellers |
| Graham | Warre |

PORT "VINTAGES" SHIPPED BY ALL OR MOST SHIPPERS

| | | |
|------|------|------|
| 1815 | 1868 | 1887 |
| 1820 | 1870 | 1890 |
| 1834 | 1873 | 1896 |
| 1847 | 1875 | 1900 |
| 1851 | 1878 | 1904 |
| 1858 | 1881 | 1908 |
| 1863 | 1884 | 1912 |

PORT " VINTAGES " SHIPPED BY FEW SHIPPERS.
(*Vintages shipped by only one or two Shippers, names of Shippers given.*)

| | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1853 | 1885 |
| 1864 (Martinez) | 1886 (Martinez) |
| 1865 | 1892 |
| 1866 (Martinez) | 1894 |
| 1867 | 1897 |
| 1869 (Croft) | 1899 (Dow) |
| 1871 (Feuerheerd) | 1901 (Graham) |
| 1872 | 1906 (Taylor) |
| 1874 (Martinez, Tuke) | 1911 (Martinez, Sandeman) |
| 1877 (Sandeman) | 1917 |
| 1880 | |

CHAPTER VI

CHAMPAGNE

CHAMPAGNE is the name of an ancient French province, where the Romans introduced viticulture and where it has flourished ever since. It is also the name of a sparkling white wine known by that name all the world over ; but, although the old province of Champagne was divided, in 1789, into four *Départements*, the Ardennes, Aube, Marne, and Haute Marne, all of which boast that they possess extensive vineyards and produce good wine, the better class Champagne is grown within a comparatively small area of the Marne *Département* only.

The grapes which produce the best Sparkling Champagne are grown on the calcareous slopes of two distinct ranges of hills, with greatly varying aspects, north, east and south, but all possessing one common and important feature, namely, poor soil, practically all chalk, and unsuitable for any other culture.

The Champagne vineyards are usually classed into two main topographical divisions, those of the *Marne River* and those of the *Montagne de Reims*. The former are facing the River Marne and may be further divided as follows : (1) The vineyards of the river proper, facing south, from Cumières to Avenay, and including besides these, Hautvillers, Dizy, Mareuil-sur-Ay, and Ay ; (2) The Epernay vineyards, which also include the neighbouring growths of Pierry and Chouilly ; (3) The Montagne d'Avize, a gentle range of hills beginning with Grauves and Cuis in the west and sloping towards the east as far as Vertus. From

Cuis to Vertus, the finest Champagne white-grape vineyards are situated at Cramant, Avize, Le Mesnil and Oger. Owing to their north-easterly aspect, most of these vineyards are liable to be severely affected by late spring frosts, which are responsible for the smaller average yield per acre in that district than in any of the others of the same region.

What is known as the *Montagne de Reims* is really the other side of the range of hills facing the river Marne and dividing Reims from Epernay. On the Reims side, the slopes are not nearly so steep and they permit of a far greater acreage of hillside vineyards, beginning at Villedommange. To the east of this, and practically facing north, are the famous vineyards of Rilly-la-Montagne, Chigny, Ludes, Mailly, Verzenay Sillery and Verzy. Soon after Verzy, the *Montagne* comes to an end in the shape of an irregular horseshoe or spur, and round the bend with a southern aspect are the vineyards of Bouzy, Ambonnay and Trépail.

All the above are first growths and produce none but the best Champagne. There are, of course, a great many other less renowned vineyards within the Marne *Département* alone, and within the area officially delimited by the French Government, outside which no wine can be made which is entitled to be sold as Champagne.

In almost every vine-growing country of Europe, America and Australia, they make fairly cheap and quite drinkable sparkling wines, which are supposed to resemble Champagne, but there are a few people in the world who can afford to have the best, and there are a great many more who cannot afford it but who will have it all the same, so that the demand for Champagne is equal to or greater than the supply, with the result that the price of Champagne is high. The

wealth of the world has increased, and the love of good things, ease, and comfort has increased still more, but the supply of Champagne has not. The trouble is that Champagne can only be made to perfection from a certain species of grapes grown within a restricted area upon a very peculiar calcareous soil, only to be found in a certain part of the valley of the Marne. The characteristics of the wine obtained from the Champagne vineyards are due to the poor soil on which suitable vines are grown, to the climatic conditions obtaining in the district, and to the mode of cultivation of the vineyards; man as well as Nature striving to produce quality at the expense of quantity.

The great majority of the grapes grown in the Champagne district are black. When they have been picked, they are put in the press and the mass of over 8,000 lbs. of blue-black grapes, which go to make one pressing, would certainly lead one to believe that red wine was going to be made and not white. But when the heavy oak lid of the press is slowly lowered and crushes the grapes, the sweet juice which these yield as they burst immediately runs down into a separate vat placed for that purpose below the press, whilst the skins, pips, and stalks are left high and dry. The juice of the grapes, being of a greenish-white colour, would only become red if left in contact with the skins, which contain all the colouring matter; so that it is possible to cheat Nature and to make white wines out of black grapes.

The juice of the grapes, or "must," contains a great deal of sugar, which the natural process of fermentation transforms into alcohol and carbonic acid gas; the alcohol stays in the wine, whilst the carbonic acid gas loses itself in the air. To keep part of this carbonic acid gas in the wine is the chief feature

of the art of making sparkling wine. In the spring which follows the vintage, the newly-made wines are bottled, tightly and securely corked, and laid to rest. Bottled thus early, Champagne still contains a certain proportion of its original grape-sugar, which will be transformed in due course by fermentation into alcohol and carbonic acid gas, and as the latter is no longer free to escape, it remains in the wine, which it renders sparkling. After it has been bottled a certain time,



TESTING NEW BOTTLES

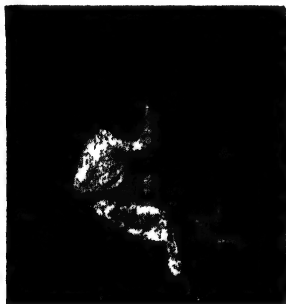


BOTTLING

the wine ceases to ferment ; it then contains its maximum quantity of alcohol and the proportion of carbonic acid gas corresponding to the amount of sugar which was in it at the bottling time. Unfortunately, it also contains a good deal of sediment as a result of fermentation and of ageing. If it were not for this sediment, the wine would be ready for consumption, but it cannot be allowed to leave the cellar until it is absolutely "star bright," and this means more work and no little ingenuity.

Each bottle is placed on specially made perforated tables, neck downwards, and is shaken gently every

day for weeks in such a way that the sediment which has been deposited on the glass in the bottle is gradually made to fall upon the cork and to settle there. When this has been achieved, the cork and all the sediment which has been collected upon it are removed with as little loss of wine as possible. Another cork is immediately driven in to replace the first one, and the wine is then ready for consumption, both sparkling and bright—a fully fermented exhilarating wine.

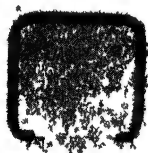


CORKING MACHINES

After the wine has been freed from the sediment it contained, and before it is corked a second time, some sweet syrup of sugar candy is sometimes added to sweeten it, but this is only done to suit the taste of those consumers who like a sweet wine ; it does not affect in any way whatsoever the sparkling quality of Champagne.

If one bears in mind the limits outside which no wine may be made which is legally entitled to the name of Champagne, and if one realizes that it takes a considerable time, untold care, many expert and skilled workmen to transform crude grape-juice into a wine which

contains not a particle of sediment and neither a lack nor an excess of carbonic acid gas, it becomes quite easy to understand why Champagne has always been and still is a most expensive wine. To ignore or to overlook this truth is to court disaster ; the homely sardine is infinitely preferable to stale caviare, and an honest draught of bitter beer is greatly to be preferred to bad Champagne. Champagne, like criticism, is most wholesome when it is sound, but, also like



CORK CLIP

FIRST CORK AFTER
BOTTLING

criticism, it is both despicable and dangerous when bad.

There is but a limited output of grapes from the best vineyards of Champagne ; there is but a limited number of shippers who ship really high-class Champagne. In the present state of the Champagne vineyards the requirements of this limited number of shippers are far in excess of the limited output of fine grapes, and of fine wine, every drop of which is bought, and will continue to be bought, every year, at the vintage time,

at very high prices by shippers who can get the best prices for their Champagne. Hence high-class Champagne is bound to be and to remain dear. This is a fact which is so plain that it leaves really no room for argument nor doubt. There is another fact which is less obvious: it is that so long as the output of the best Champagne grapes remains below the requirements of the shippers of the best Champagne, the grapes which have to be bought by shippers who cater for a class of customers who cannot or will not pay "top" prices, cannot be wholly nor even partly "of the best."

The difference which existed between first-class and second-class Champagne, before the war, when the output of the best vineyards was, in good years, larger than the demand, is now much greater and will remain greater as long as present conditions remain what they are.

Before the War, there was, on an average, much more Champagne produced within the Champagne district than was required or suitable for the sparkling Champagne trade, much of it being required and consumed as ordinary beverage wine. There is every reason to believe that the hard work which is being put into the tremendous task of making good the havoc wrought by the War will bring back the average output of wine to the pre-war figure within ten or twelve years from the cessation of hostilities.

Champagne is not shipped as the produce nor under the name of any particular vineyard, like Claret or Burgundy. To make sparkling Champagne, the wines of different vineyards are blended together in order to unite the particular characteristics of different grapes from different parts of the Champagne district. This blending takes place when the wines are still in

cask, that is to say, before the bottling time in the spring which follows the vintage.

In the majority of cases, the blending of Champagne is not confined to wines of different vineyards and of the same vintage ; a more or less important proportion of older wines, kept in casks for the purpose from year to year, is added, before bottling, to improve the "Cuvée."

In exceptionally fine years, the wines of the year may be bottled after having been blended together, but without older wines being blended with them. Strictly speaking, no Champagne is entitled to be shipped under a label giving the year of its vintage except when no older wine has been blended with that of the year on the label. It is permissible to infer that the dating of vintage Champagne has ceased to be strictly carried out, since exceptionally fine years have been quite as exceptional during the present as during the last century; whilst, on the other hand, so-called "Vintage" Champagnes are much more numerous and unlike each other now than they were wont to be. As a matter of fact, there are but very few vintage "Cuvées" on the market which are not blends, blends not only of wines from different vineyards but also of different years, and all experts are agreed that such "Cuvées" are all the better for being blends.

The excellence of Champagne depends to a very large extent upon the shipper's skill in blending and upon the quality and variety of Champagne wines at his command when he makes up his blends or "Cuvées."

This is why Champagne is not known by the name of a château, like the wine of Château Lafite, nor by the name of a vineyard, like the wine of Chambertin, but

by the names of responsible shippers such as the following—

| | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| Ayala | Krug |
| Binet | Lanson |
| Bollinger | Lemoine |
| Charles Heidsieck | Moët & Chandon |
| Clicquot-Ponsardin | Montebello |
| Delbeck | Perrier-Jouet |
| Deutz & Geldermann | Piper-Heidsieck |
| Duminy | Pol Roger |
| Goulet (George) | Pommery & Greno |
| Heidsieck & Co. | L. Roederer |
| (Dry Monopole) | Ruinart père & fils |
| Irroy | |

and many others.

CHAPTER VII

CLARET

Bordeaux. Ever since the fourth century, when Ausonius, who was born at Bordeaux in A.D. 309, tells us that they were in demand in Rome, the wines of Bordeaux have been shipped to every part of the civilized world and have enjoyed a more universal and lasting reputation than any other wine. But not all the wines which have for so many centuries passed through Bordeaux on their way to distant and less-favoured lands have been the produce of the Bordeaux vineyards. What we call Claret in England, and what the French call Vin de Bordeaux is, or should be, the produce of the *Département* of the Gironde, and of no other.

The *Département* of the Gironde is part of the old Province of Guienne and produces a much greater quantity of fine red and white wines than any other *Département* in France.

The vineyards of the Gironde may be divided into six principal districts, namely : (1) Médoc ; (2) Graves ; (3) Sauternes ; (4) Entre-deux-Mers ; (5) Côtes ; and (6) Palus. All these districts are situated on the Garonne, on the Dordogne, or on their confluent, the Gironde ; they produce an average of 91,895,019 galls. per annum.

1. The **Medoc** is a strip of low lying land along the left bank of the River Gironde, some 6 miles wide and about 50 miles long. The best vineyards are planted on a series of gently swelling elevations of varying



COS D'ESTOURNEL

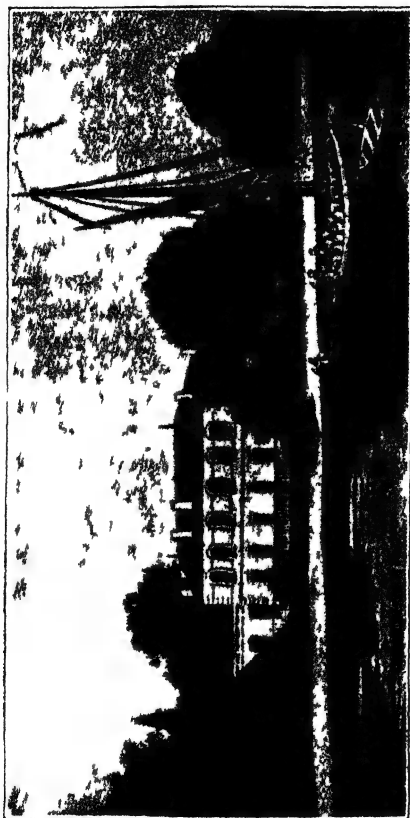
heights, which may be likened to some great downs, the soil of which is chiefly composed of silicious gravel and is sometimes of a calcareous nature.

The principal vineyards of the Médoc, as one leaves Bordeaux and proceeds towards the sea, lie in the districts of Ludon, Macau, and Labarde, and on to Cantenac and Margaux, from the stony and gravelly soil of which are produced some of the most delicate and refined of all Clarets.

After passing through some few miles of flat country, where richer alluvial soil is to be met and a somewhat poorer quality of wine is made, one comes to the vineyards of St. Laurent, and the more famous district of St. Julien, in which Léoville, Larose and many other fine growths are situated. From there one passes into the Pauillac district, where are to be found some of the finest vineyards in all the Médoc. Here, near the old-fashioned village of Pauillac, on the banks of the broad river, are the celebrated Châteaux of Lafite and Latour, Mouton, Pichon Longueville and Pontet Canet, and more than a score of others, separated from each other and from less famous vineyards merely by a road or even a path.

After leaving Château Lafite, one enters the St. Estèphe district, where there are fewer châteaux, but where some fine wine is also made. At St. Estèphe may be said to terminate the "Grands Crûs du Médoc," although there is a large quantity of good wine made in districts beyond.

The growths of the Médoc have been "classified" a long time ago; their classification has been altered slightly from time to time, but not since 1855. Although some few alterations might be made, the classification of 1855 still holds good, as shown on page 79.



CHÂTEAU DUHART-MILON

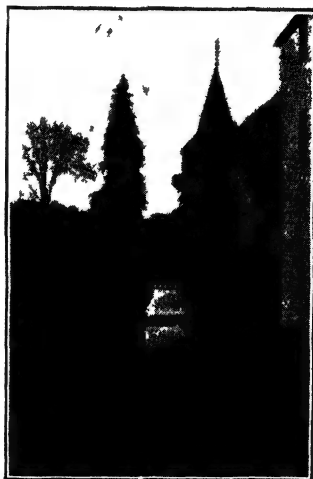
| CHÂTEAU | COMMUNES. |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| (First Growths) | |
| Lafite | Pauillac |
| Margaux | Margaux |
| Latour | Pauillac |
| (Second Growths) | |
| Mouton-Rothschild | Pauillac |
| Rauzan-Ségla | Margaux |
| Rauzan-Gassies | Margaux |
| Léoville-Lascases | St. Julien |
| Léoville-Poyferré | St. Julien |
| Léoville-Barton | St. Julien |
| Durfort-Vivens | Margaux |
| Lascombes | Margaux |
| Gruaud-Larose-Sarget | St. Julien |
| Gruaud-Larose-Faure | St. Julien |
| Brane-Cantenac | Cantenac |
| Pichon-Longueville | Pauillac |
| Pichon-Longueville-Lalande | Pauillac |
| Ducru-Beaucaillou | St. Julien |
| Cos-d'Estournel | St. Estèphe |
| Montrose | St. Estèphe |
| (Third Growths) | |
| Kirwan | Cantenac |
| D'Issan | Cantenac |
| Lagrange | St. Julien |
| Langoa | St. Julien |
| Giscours | Labarde |
| Cantenac Brown | Cantenac |
| Malescot-St.-Exupéry | Margaux |
| Palmer | Margaux |
| La Lagune | Ludon |
| Desmirail | Margaux |
| Calon-Ségur | St. Estèphe |
| Ferrière | Margaux |
| Marquis-d'Alesme-Becker | Margaux |
| (Fourth Growths) | |
| St. Pierre-Sevaistre | St. Julien |
| St. Pierre-Bontemps-Dubarry | |
| Talbot-d'Aux | St. Julien |
| Branais-Ducru | St. Julien |
| Duhart-Milon | Pauillac |
| Poujet | Cantenac |

| CHÂTEAU. | COMMUNES. |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| (Fourth Growths, <i>cont.</i>) | |
| La Tour-Carnet | St. Laurent |
| Lafon-Rochet | St. Estèphe |
| Beychevelle | St. Julien |
| Le Prieuré | Cantenac |
| Marquis-de-Terme | Margaux |
| (Fifth Growths) | |
| Pontet-Canet | Pauillac |
| Batailley | Pauillac |
| Grand-Puy-Lacoste | Pauillac |
| Grand-Puy-Ducasse | Pauillac |
| Lynch-Bages | Pauillac |
| Lynch-Moussas | Pauillac |
| Dauzac | Labarde |
| Mouton-d'Armaillacq | Pauillac |
| Le Tertre | Arsac |
| Haut Bages | Pauillac |
| Pedesclaux | Pauillac |
| Belgrave | St. Laurent |
| Camensac | St. Laurent |
| Cos Labory | St. Estèphe |
| Clerc-Milon | Pauillac |
| Croizet-Bages | Pauillac |
| Cantemerle | Macau |

2. **Graves.** This district is smaller but more picturesque than the Médoc, beginning just outside Bordeaux and extending only 13 miles to the south, and about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the west of the city. The soil is of a light sandy nature full of silicious stones of different sizes and colour to a depth of from 2 to 10 feet. The subsoil varies a good deal, and is either clay, chalk or stone, or formed of a hard kind of very dark sand, known as *alios*, which contains a ferruginous matter called "*arène*." There, again, we have a soil absolutely unfit for any other culture but that of the vine, which grows there and produces a wine the flavour and sweetness of which more than compensate for the usually small quantity of the yield. The Graves district produces red as well as white wines of very high repute, but the brightest jewel in its vinous crown,

and one of which it is justly proud, is the Château Haut-Brion, which stands at the very gates of Bordeaux.

The following are only a few of the Châteaux and



CHÂTEAU OLIVIER

estates of the Graves district which produce some of the best red wines.

| CHATEAUX. | COMMUNES. |
|---|-----------|
| Haut-Brion, first growth, ranking with the three first growths of the Médoc | Pessac |
| La Mission-Haut-Brion | Pessac |
| Pape-Clément | Pessac |
| Haut-Bailly | Léognan |
| Larrivet-Haut-Brion | Léognan |
| Domaine de Chevalier | Léognan |
| Smith-Haut-Lafite | Martillac |

3. Sauternes. This is a comparatively small district, comprising Sauternes, Bommes and Barsac, and

dedicated almost entirely to white wines. The soil differs from that of the Graves district, which it adjoins ; it is a mixture partly of clay and gravel and partly of chalk and clay.

The sunny vineyards of the Sauternes district produce a naturally sweet wine, of unsurpassed excellence, the best and most widely known being that of Château Yquem.

4. **Entre-Deux-Mers.** This district is situated between the Garonne and the Dordogne, and produces a great deal of sound and useful red and white wines.

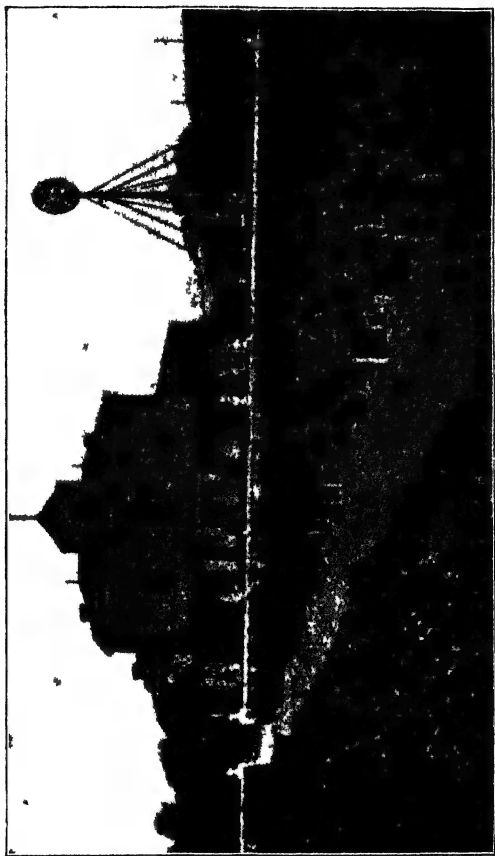
5. **Côtes.** The Côtes wines are those from hillside vineyards in different parts of the Gironde *Département* ; they vary greatly, therefore, in quantity and quality. By far the finest Côtes wines are those of the St. Emilion district on the right bank of the Dordogne. This is a quite attractive district of the Gironde, as it is undulating and abounds in beautiful landscape, whilst the old ruins of St. Emilion itself are of great beauty and archaeological interest. Among the best wines of St. Emilion and of the adjoining district of Pomerol are the following—

ST. EMILION,
Ausone
Cheval-Blanc
Clos Fourtet
Canon

POMEROL.
La Conseillante
L'Evangile
Pétrus

6. **Palus.** The Palus wines are those obtained from vineyards planted in rich alluvial soil, either close to the banks of the Gironde, Garonne, or Dordogne, and on islands in the Gironde, or in the plains. These vineyards give usually abundant crops, but the quality of the wine made therefrom is distinctly inferior to the produce of any of the other vineyards of the Gironde.

In the making of Claret, the art of man intervenes



CHÂTEAU MONTROSE

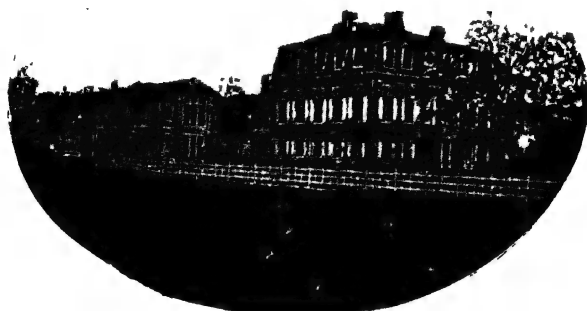
only to remove every possible cause of imperfection, but not to assist nor to hamper Nature. In order to obtain the best "must," all imperfect berries are carefully removed when the grapes are picked, and in order to avoid the wine acquiring from its lees too pungent a taste, it is "racked" from time to time, but nothing is added either to the "must" or the wine to improve its colour, body, flavour, or alcoholic strength, all of which are due to the species of grapes used in making the wine, to the nature of the soil, the aspect of the vineyards where such grapes were grown, and the natural phenomenon of fermentation. Moreover, there is in Claret a more perfect harmony between its component parts than in any other wine. There is neither a lack nor an excess of grape-sugar, acidity, tannin, or alcohol, all of which so marvellously harmonize that Claret charms without palling on the palate and stimulates the brain without over-balancing it.

One of the great charms of Claret is that it adapts itself to all tastes, constitutions and purses. The varieties of Claret, the differences in excellence and in price, in type and style, are much greater than is the case with other wines.

Broadly speaking, Claret is the wine which is made from vines grown in the Gironde *Département*. This *Département*, however, produces much good wine, but also some of indifferent quality.

A Claret which is offered for sale solely under the name of either Médoc, Graves or St. Emilion is but the nondescript product of large wine-growing districts where good quality is the rule, but a rule which has many exceptions. There are in the Médoc, for instance, many communes or administrative divisions, of which the best known in England are those of Margaux, St. Julien, and St. Estèphe. A Claret sold under any

such name is supposed to be a wine grown within the commune the name of which it bears ; but, there again, many and wide are the differences which exist between the wines of the same commune, differences which are chiefly due to the soil and aspect of each vineyard. On the same hillock, for instance, a vineyard may be planted facing north-west, on a slope at the foot of



CHÂTEAU PONTET-CANET

which runs the Gironde ; the rich alluvial soil, the unfavourable aspect, and the immediate proximity of the river all combining to make it impossible for such a vineyard to produce really fine wine. Yet, at a very short distance, at the top or on the opposite slope of the same hillock, vines may be grown on eminently suitable stony or gravelly soil, with a south-eastern aspect, and produce the finest Claret it is possible to taste. Much sound, wholesome and pleasant Claret may be sold merely under the name of a commune, such as St. Julien or Margaux ; but all Clarets which

have a claim to a more or less high degree of excellence are too proud of their birthright not to go into the world under their own name—the name of the estate or château whence they came. Thus, whilst the names of Médoc and Margaux are no real guarantee of fine quality, a bottle of Château Margaux means a bottle of Claret from a particular estate which holds the first place among all the vineyards of the Commune of Margaux, in the district of the Médoc; Château Rauzan-Ségla is the name of one of the second best; Château Desmirail denotes one of the third best; Château Marquis de Terme one of the fourth best wines of the Médoc district, and all from the Commune of Margaux. The same applies to all the vine-growing communes of the Médoc, of the Graves, and of the St. Emilion districts, so that its almost endless varieties and many grades of excellence make Claret the most interesting of all wines; one always finds something new to learn about Claret, and this is not one of the least charms of this excellent wine.

The Gironde *Département* also produces much white wine of good quality. The best dry white wines of Bordeaux come from the Graves district, whilst some inimitable sweet white wines are produced in the Sauternes district, none being more justly celebrated throughout the world than the magnificent, luscious wines of Château Yquem.

CHAPTER VIII

BURGUNDY

DIJON, the ancient and proud capital of the Burgundian dukes, used to be surrounded by some of the most famous vineyards of the Côte d'Or. It is no longer so, chiefly owing to these vineyards having been planted with commoner species of vines, yielding a greater quantity of grapes but of distinctly inferior quality. The finest Burgundy vineyards may be said to extend from Gevrey, some 5 miles south of Dijon, to Santenay, close to the limits of the *Département de Saône et Loire*. Gevrey is an old-world village, the name of which has faded before the fame of its most celebrated vineyard, *Chambertin*. Chambertin is not on the maps of the world, yet its name is known, and has been known for centuries, in all parts of the world wherever there have been men blest with an appreciative palate, and with the means of obtaining the good things of this world.

From Gevrey to Beaune runs one of those straight and broad roads so dear to the heart of the motorist. To the left of that *Route Nationale* vines grow and prosper on the rich soil of the plain, but the wine they yield is only fit for local consumption, whilst, on the right of the same road, the most celebrated growths of Burgundy are situated.

Foremost among these are the *Clos de Bèze*, within the Commune of Gevrey, like Chambertin; then, in the neighbouring Commune of Morey, the *Clos de Tart*. The Clos de Tart is not only one of the finest but also one of the most ancient vineyards of Burgundy. It

was purchased in 1141 by a religious order, and Pope Lucius III confirmed them in the possession thereof in 1184 ; ever since, vines have been cultivated and excellent wine has been made there.

Next to the Commune of Morey is that of Chambolle ; like that of Gevrey, its name has little significance abroad, but the name of Chambolle's most famous vineyards, *Musigny*, is ever on the lips and in the heart of all who value fine wine. After Chambolle, we come to the Commune of Vougeot, where is situated the Clos de Vougeot, a growth which enjoys a more ancient and world-wide popularity than any other vineyard in the whole of Burgundy.

The famous Abbey of Citeaux was given some vine-land at Vougeot in 1110, and from that date until 1336, the property of the monks was increased by purchases or gifts in such a manner that they ended by possessing one of the finest vineyards ever known, a square piece of the best vine-growing land covering over 125 acres, planted with the finest species of vines, the whole surrounded by a high wall, which exists to this day. Unfortunately, the monks are no longer there and their vines have now passed into the hands of a relatively large number of growers. All of them make excellent wine from their little share of the Clos de Vougeot vines, but, good as such wines are to-day, they cannot all possess that same quality which was uniformly theirs so long as the famous Clos remained entirely the property of one owner.

Next to Vougeot is the Commune of Flagey, where some very fine wines are made from the Grands-Echezeaux vineyards, but these are hardly known in England, where they are handicapped by their difficult name. Still pursuing our way towards Beaune, we now come to Vosnes.

Of all the communes of France the most modest is assuredly that of Vosnes. Who knows it? Quiet and unobtrusive like the ballet-master whom nobody thinks of nor inquires after, Vosnes glories in the fame of her brilliant daughters whose names are famous all the world over, as great favourites as the greatest dancers of the day, but with the difference that, never growing old, they deserve and receive the unstinted admiration of generation after generation. Vosnes is unknown, but the vineyards of Vosnes are Richebourg, Romanée Conti (the only vineyard which takes precedence of the Clos de Vougeot), La Tache, Romanée St. Vivant, and many of more or lesser fame abroad but of equally remarkable excellence.

After Vosnes, we come to the Commune of Nuits. Nuits itself is more than a village, and the fine mansions of its merchants give it quite the air of a town. Moreover, Nuits has not allowed the fame of even its most celebrated vineyard, viz., St. Georges, to usurp its place in the annals of the world. The wines of Nuits include the produce of a great many vineyards in the neighbourhood, some extremely fine, whilst others are of more moderate quality. The same remark applies to the wines made from the vineyards of the neighbouring Commune of Prémieux, which are usually shipped abroad under the better-known name of Nuits.

After Prémieux, there is a short gap in the hills of the Côte d'Or, and we get no more good vineyards until the Commune of Aloxe is entered; it is there that the famous *Corton* vineyards are situated, and there also that what is known as the Côte de Beaune begins. A little to the west, there are the extensive vineyards of Savigny, but if we keep to the *Route Nationale*, which we have followed from Gevrey, we soon arrive at the quaint little town of Beaune, where some fine

remains of the ancient fortifications are still to be seen, and where the old Hospice, founded in the fifteenth century, still carries on its work of mercy, exactly in the same way as 500 years ago. The nuns wear the same curious, high-shouldered garb; the drugs are still kept in now priceless mediaeval pottery; and the ivory white faces of the folks, lying in fifteenth century four-posted beds, seem also to belong to days of long ago.

Remarkable as the Hospice de Beaune assuredly is in many respects, it is quite unique in the source of its yearly income. The old Hospice is not dependent upon State grants, municipal largesse, nor public generosity; its chief income is derived from the vineyards which have been bequeathed to that benevolent institution from time to time for centuries past.

The vintages of Beaune have been famous in Great Britain for a longer time than any other Burgundy wines. In 1512, Louis XII of France sent a present of thirty-six puncheons of "Vin de Beaune cléret" to James IV of Scotland, and, in 1537, Lord Lisle imported ten casks of Beaune wine, which were shipped to him from Rouen to London.

Amongst the most celebrated growths of the "Côte de Beaune" are those of *Pommard* and *Volnay*, the wines of which justly enjoy a world-wide reputation.

Farther south, some very good white wine is made from the vineyards of the Communes of Meursault, Puligny and Chassagne, where are situated the famous Montrachet vineyards, which produce a white wine equal, if not superior, to the finest white wines of France. The Commune of Santenay is the last within the *Département* of Côte d'Or; it adjoins the Saône et Loire where many fair vineyards are to be seen, and muc'



WINTER WORK IN VINEYARDS

good wine is made, but none which can compare in quality with the best growths of the Côte d'Or. The best red wines of Saône et Loire are those of Mâcon and the best white wines those of Pouilly. Further south, in the *Département* of Rhône, extensive vineyards are to be seen upon the hills of the Beaujolais, and they produce a sound red wine much lighter, but also much cheaper, than the Côte d'Or wines.

In quite another direction, to the north-west of the Côte d'Or, the *Département* of Yonne—part of which used to be within the limits of the old province of Burgundy—produces a large quantity of both red and white wines. The first were formerly greatly appreciated in England, where they were known as “Wines of Auxerre.” Thus Henry VIII had some Auxerre wine sent to London, via Rouen, in 1536 and 1537. On several occasions, in 1537, 1538, and 1540, Lord Lisle also imported some Auxerre wine, which was sent by barge from Auxerre, on the river Yonne, to Montereau, where the Yonne meets the Seine, and hence by the Seine to Rouen. The red wines of the Yonne *Département* have long ceased to be popular outside the district where they are made, but the fame of the white wines of Chablis is as great and as justly deserved as ever.

Burgundy is the most fragrant of all red wines ; all the best growths have a distinctive and a striking *bouquet*. Burgundy is equally pleasing to the eye as to the olfactory sense ; it possesses a fine, clear, dark red colour, which no mixture of grape-juice, spirit and sugar can ever approach. Burgundy fulfils on the palate the promises held out by its fine colour and charming *bouquet* ; it possesses a certain softness, warmth and delicacy harmoniously blended together in a manner that the art of man never can hope to imitate ; soft and velvety, Burgundy never is “ sugary ” ;

warm and generous, it never is "spirity"; delicate, it never is vapid. As the last sip is swallowed, Burgundy leaves on the palate a most pleasing "farewell," never a watery nor fiery taste. The popular belief that Burgundy is a heavy, inky wine is due, like many such beliefs, not to facts but to fiction. The black vinous brews sold under the name of "Burgundy" or the appellation of "Burgundy-type," by retailers often more ignorant than dishonest, are a gross libel upon the highly bred, delicate and delicious wines of Burgundy.

CHAPTER IX

SHERRY

SHERRY is a wine which is essentially Spanish. Imitations of Sherry are numerous, but they are all unsatisfactory and many are objectionable. True Sherry comes from the district of which Jerez is the centre, a district which lies, roughly speaking, within an imaginary line drawn from Port St. Mary to Rota, San Lucar, Trebujena, Lebrija, Arcos, and back to Port St. Mary.

Sherry is a wine which owes its chief merit, its distinctive and varied characteristics, in the first instance, to the species of grapes and to the nature of the soil of the Jerez vineyards, and, in the second place, to the way fermentation of the wine is carried out.

The vineyards of Jerez are divided into three main classes, according to the nature of the soil. The best vineyards, those where the finest grapes are cultivated and where the finest wines are made, have a calcareous soil known as "Albariza." In other vineyards the soil is mostly or entirely clay; these are known as "Barros," and the grapes produced from such vineyards yield a distinctly commoner type of wine. Lastly, there are vineyards planted in sandy lands called "Arenas," and the large quantity of wine made therefrom is inferior. Of course, these three different types of soil are not divided from one another in the same precise way as black squares from white squares upon a chess-board. The soil of many vineyards is neither wholly clay, nor wholly chalk, nor wholly sand, and there are ever so many different shades of types and

styles of soil, grapes and wines in the Jerez district, from the worst "Arenas" up to the finest "Albariza."

The vineyards are divided into a large number of "Pagos," or estates; many of these are owned and worked by small farmers who are far from wealthy. This explains why a number of vineyards destroyed by the phylloxera have never been replanted; their owners, lacking the means necessary for planting new vines and waiting several years before they could become productive, sowed cereals instead and reaped a more immediate profit.

The grapes are picked and crushed generally in September, and they begin to ferment very soon after; the pulp is then subjected to a harder and more thorough pressing, and, at that stage, a handful or two of "yeso" is sprinkled over the sticky mass in the press. This "yeso" is a pure native earth burnt to a dust. This earth is found in large quantities in the neighbourhood of Jerez, and consists almost entirely of sulphate of lime; it is added in the proportion of about 2 lbs. to 1 ton of freshly crushed grapes, which is the quantity usually necessary to obtain a butt of "must." This addition of sulphate of lime is peculiar to Jerez, and it is a very ancient local practice. When the grapes are picked and brought to the press, the berries are usually covered with a white "bloom," consisting partly of living *Saccharomycetes*, indispensable to the life process of fermentation, and partly with a little fine dust from the soil of the vineyards. This fine dust is composed largely of calcium carbonate, particularly so in "Albariza" vineyards, and the handful of "yeso" added to the crushed grapes in the press cannot be said to be the introduction of an alien substance. Sulphate of lime is responsible for certain chemical reactions, but it is in no way

injurious nor objectionable ; on the contrary, it has a very marked and beneficial influence upon the fermentation and quality of Sherry.

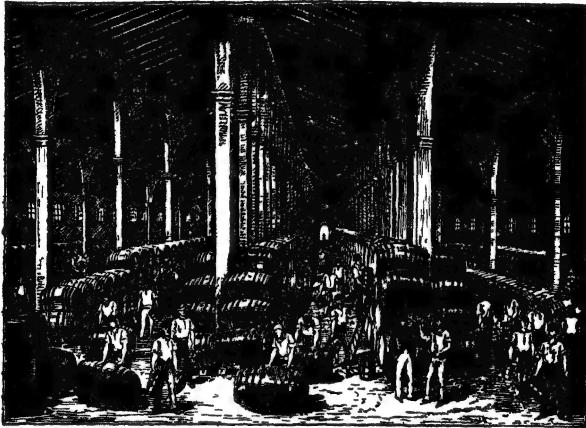
The fermentation of the newly pressed grapes goes on boisterously during about three weeks, and proceeds at a slower pace during the ensuing eight weeks or so. The wine is then racked into fresh casks, and although it is still called "mosto," it is no longer "must" ; it is young wine, but not yet Sherry. There is only one way to make Sherry, and this is to leave the "mosto" alone and watch what time will do to it. Nobody can guess how the new wine inside the cask is going to turn out ; it may become sour or vapid ; it may develop into a delicate "fino" or a generous "oloroso." Time alone will tell.

Three or four months after the vintage, the "mosto" or new wine will fall bright, and it will be possible to decide which is fit only for distillation, or, on the contrary, which is good enough to keep with every prospect of its becoming Sherry. The latter is then racked, a little brandy is added to it, and it is left to ferment, undisturbed, in the bodegas.

This second or "slow" fermentation of the Jerez wines is very peculiar ; it is all important, and yet it is but very imperfectly understood. To all appearances there is no carbonic acid gas generated, but a "flor" or fine scum gradually spreads over the wine and covers it completely. The "flowering" of the wine plays a very important part in the making of Sherry ; it is to a large extent responsible for the character which the wine will assume eventually.

The wine is encouraged to flower by every means known to the "almacenista" whose property the wine is. One of the chief means is to leave the casks on ullage with the bungs either removed or very loose, so that

the wine comes in contact with the oxygen of the air. For this reason bodegas are never below ground, and care is taken that no refuse or decadent matter is allowed in the bodega. The "almacenista" watches carefully the progress of each butt, and when the "flor" has done its work, it precipitates as a sediment and the wine is then racked.



BODEGA

It is upon the "flowering" fermentation of the wine that the style, but not the quality, of Sherry depends.

Three or four months after the vintage, the young wines are only "mosto"; some eighteen months later they have become "vinos de anada," or "natural wines," and these are classified not as regards "quality"—for it is only with time that they will acquire or fail to acquire quality—but as regards "type."

The wines which the shipper has before him at that stage may be from the same vineyard, made in the same way and at the same time; yet there will be, after

the "flowering," very marked differences between the contents of each cask.

In some casks the wine will be intensely clean, dry and most delicate ; such a wine is called "Fino" ; it is usually marked with a chalk sign known as "Palma." Other casks, on the contrary, will contain a bigger and rich wine ; such casks will be marked with a chalk dash, or "Raya," which is the name by which they will then be known.

Yet the shipper cannot divide all his wines as coarse and delicate ; some of his casks will be found to contain a wine very nearly as "clean" as the "Fino" and yet almost as full-bodied as the "Raya." In this case the shipper will mark the cask with a chalk dash crossed by another dash at the top, and the wine in the casks marked thus will henceforth be known as "Palo Cortado." Besides these, there are a number of other varieties and distinctive marks.

Sherry is not shipped under such names as "Raya" or "Cortado" but under the names "Amontillado" and "Vino de Pasto," "Oloroso" and "Amoroso," or "Golden Sherry." The first two are blends mostly of "Fino" wines, the next two are blends chiefly of "Cortado" wines, and the last a blend of "Raya" wines, but in each case the blending of different wines and of wines of different years will have to be carried on slowly and judiciously, year by year, according to the different characteristics which each wine will acquire or fail to acquire with age.

This scientific blending process is responsible for the "solera" wines, or wines of different types selected by the shipper to form as perfectly sound a foundation as possible, and also as regular a "quality" of wine as possible. The great art of the shipper is to maintain the original quality of his "solera" wines

from year to year, drawing upon them for his shipping "marks" and replacing the quantities of wine he draws by "Vinos de Anada," or natural wines of suitable style and in suitable quantity for the newcomers to acquire the quality of the rest of the "solera" wine to which they are admitted.

It is this "solera" system which makes it possible for the shipper to maintain the continuity of style and the level of quality of the wines which he will sell to the merchants.

Sherry shippers could not ship "mosto"; they never ship "Vinos de Anada"; they rarely ship "solera" wines. What they ship is "Sherry," Sherry of different styles and quality made up at the time of shipment with so many "arrobas" (a measure equivalent to about $2\frac{3}{4}$ galls.) from one "solera" and so many more "arrobas" from other "soleras," or of "Vinos de Anada," according to the taste or requirements of the customer who has ordered the wine.

In the great majority of cases, Sherry, before it is shipped, is blended still further with a proportion of a sweet wine of the Jerez district known by the name of the grape from which it is obtained, i.e. "Pedro Ximenez," a very sweet grape, the juice of which is prevented from fermenting by the addition of grape-spirit soon after the vintage. Lastly, some dark-brown wine may also be added in order to "colour" Sherry before it is shipped. On the whole, it is not too much to say that Sherry is the triumph of the blender's art, but one must bear in mind that the blender's art stands or falls by the help of the greatest artist of all, viz., *Time*.

Of all wines, Sherry is practically the only one which bears being left open without deteriorating. Port, Claret, far worse, Champagne taste flat, and lose much

of their charm if they are kept overnight once the cork has been drawn ; not so Sherry, which will retain its full fragrance and unimpaired excellence for some time after it has been opened.

This fact, which has long been recognized by the public, makes Sherry the ideal wine for temperate yet hospitable people, and it gained for Sherry the place of honour on every Englishman's sideboard during the greater part of Queen Victoria's reign. Sherry suffered more than any other wine from the Gladstonian legislation of the early sixties and the introduction of weak and "extraordinarily dry" Sherry retailed by grocers and others at "bargain" prices. To ask for "cheap" Sherry is to court disaster. Sherry is a wine which requires so much time to make that its price can never be really low.

CHAPTER X

HOCK AND MOSELLE

PRACTICALLY the whole of the German vineyards are in southern and western provinces of the Reich, and the German wines shipped to this country come chiefly from three distinct districts, viz., (1) from the valleys of the Moselle and its tributaries ; (2) from the valley of the Rhine ; (3) from the Bavarian Palatinate.

Moselle. The valley of the Upper Moselle, before the river reaches Treves, produces a large quantity of wine, but none of superior quality, and none which can compare with the wines of the Saar. This river runs mostly in a north-westerly direction, and joins the Moselle a few miles above Treves. The finest vineyards of the Saar are on the right bank of the river, from Geisberg in the south to Euchariusberg in the north. Not far from Geisberg is Bockstein, and a little further on the famous Scharzhofberg, the finest growths in the Saar valley. Two other celebrated bergs are Scharzberg and Agritiusberg, whilst excellent wines are also made a little further north at Wiltingen and Oberemmel.

Below the ancient city of Treves, rich in Roman remains of great beauty, the Moselle receives, on the right, another small river, called the Ruwer. In the valley of the Ruwer, some very delicate and fascinating wines are also made, none better known nor more excellent than those from the ancient ecclesiastical vineyards at Grunehaus.

From there to Coblenz, on either bank of the Moselle, are grown the finest wines of the Moselle proper. To name but a few : there are Piesport and the range of

the Brauneberg hills, on the left bank of the river ; a little further down, and on the opposite bank, we come to the celebrated vineyards of Berncastel, where the vines grow on distinctly slaty soil.

From Berncastel northwards, the vineyards of Graach, Josephshof, Wehlen, Zeltingen and Trarbach, on the right, and those of Erden, Machern and Uerzig, on the left, are among those which produce the most delicate Moselle wines, light without being thin, and possessing that very distinctive bouquet which is one of their greatest charms. The peculiar aroma of the Moselle wines is due to the silicious soil on which they are grown, which often requires blasting before the vines can be planted.

Rhinegau. The valley of the Rhine is not so picturesque as that of the Moselle, but it has more grandeur. From Bonn to Coblenz and from Coblenz to Bingen many vineyards are to be seen on either side of the river, and much wine is made therefrom, but the most famous Rhine wines are those of a limited district known as Rheingau and those of Rhenish Hessen. The Rhinegau vineyards are on the right bank of the Rhine and may be said to begin almost opposite Bingen with the extensive vineyards of Rudesheim, and to end with the hills of Rauenthal. It is within that comparatively small area that are to be found the most celebrated Rhinegau vineyards, which yield wines second to none in the world in point of excellence, and which are eagerly bought at the vintage at prices far higher than those given for new wines in any other vine-growing country.

After leaving Rudesheim, one comes to Geisenheim, Winkel, Mittelheim and Oestrich, near the Rhine, whilst higher up the hills are the Castles of Johannisberg and Volrads, surrounded by magnificent vineyards.

A little further east are the no less celebrated hills of Steinberg, whilst nearer the river are the famous growths of Hattenheim, Marcobrunnen, Erbach and Eltville.

On the opposite bank of the Rhine, in Hessen, there are a far greater number of vineyards from Bingen to Mayence and from Mayence to Worms than in the Rhinegau, but there is only a comparatively small percentage of the wines made in this province which can claim to possess a very high degree of excellence. Some vineyards in Hessen, however, produce very fine wines, with good body and bouquet, which are eminently suited for exportation. The best of these are the wines of Nierstein and Oppenheim, some miles south of Mayence, and those of Liebfraumlch, near Worms, on the southern frontier of Hessen.

Palatinate. The Palatinate vineyards differ from all others in Germany, being the only ones which are not grown in sheltered valleys, on the lower slopes of the hills which border the Rhine and its tributaries. They are situated on a plateau, protected from strong winds by a mountain range, and are planted in a soil chiefly of alluvial origin, mostly with southern aspects. The wines made in that district are very distinct from those of the Rhinegau, being more luscious but not always so lasting. The first growths of the *Palatinate* are Deidesheim and Forst ; also Durkheim, Wachenheim, and Ruppertsberg.

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